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TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Chapter</i>		<i>Page</i>
Foreword		68
I. Reading Problems of Pressing Importance	DAVID KOPEL, with the cooperation of JOHN J. DEBOER, <i>Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois</i>	69
II. Literature in School Instruction	BERNICE E. LEARY, <i>Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin</i>	88
III. Language Development and Meaning	J. CONRAD SEEGERS, <i>Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania</i>	102
IV. Language and Higher Mental Processes	DONALD D. DURRELL, <i>Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts</i>	110
V. Foreign Language Instruction: General Review	JAMES B. THARP, <i>Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio</i>	115
VI. The Teaching of Latin	B. L. ULLMAN, <i>University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois</i>	127
VII. German Language Teaching	HELENA M. GAMER, <i>University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois</i>	135
VIII. Teaching the Romance Languages: French, Spanish, Italian	OTTO F. BOND, with the assistance of JAMES BABCOCK, HILDA NORMAN, and LAWRENCE ANDRUS, <i>University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois</i>	142

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Page</i>
IX. Composition, Public Speaking, Vocabulary, Grammar, Spelling, and Handwriting	162
DORA V. SMITH, <i>University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota</i>	
X. Expressive Arts in School Instruction	190
KENNETH J. ARISMAN, <i>University School, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio</i>	
XI. Music in School Instruction	200
RUSSELL V. MORGAN, <i>Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio</i>	
Index	205

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FOREWORD

THIS ISSUE of the REVIEW bears evidence of the war conditions in various ways. Its lateness represents a number of changes in plan which had to be made as developing conditions necessitated abandonment of earlier plans. In a number of cases contributors found themselves unable to carry through their initial promises; other contributors were sought, and in some cases were secured.

Most notable for cooperative spirit and sacrifice of personal convenience was the production of the four chapters in the foreign language field. These chapters were prepared and submitted within a space of ten days after the contributors were first called upon. The writers wish it known that the work does not represent their complete search and mature consideration; the editor wishes it known that their performance stands at the apex of efficient helpfulness during his entire experience.

A place was made for chapters on art and music in this issue because in both their expressive and esthetic phases the fine arts have much in common with verbal media. In the preceding cycle the fine arts were treated in the same issue as the industrial arts and vocational education.

With the editing of this issue the editor severs his connection with the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. He has been editor since 1937, at which time he succeeded the first editor, his former teacher, Frank N. Freeman. While he has enjoyed the happiest of relations with contributors and with the Editorial Board, the editor's philosophy is that in change the world finds both safety and hope. He therefore turns the active management of the magazine over to his successor, J. Cayce Morrison—one who helped give birth to the magazine in 1931 through his counsel on the founding committee—with full confidence that the REVIEW is at present rendering service to students and research workers and that it will in the future continue to do so in ever increasing measure.

DOUGLAS E. SCATES
Chairman of the Editorial Board

CHAPTER I

Reading Problems of Pressing Importance

DAVID KOPEL, with the cooperation of JOHN J. DE BOER

Introduction: The War Perspective

SINCE the appearance of the previous triennial summary of research in the April 1940 issue of this journal (34), war has come to America, and in its wake events of profound significance for the social, economic, and educational life of our nation have taken place. One need but mention Pearl Harbor, Bataan, Guadalcanal; the Selective Service Act (and the War Manpower Commission), the War Labor Board, the Office of Price Administration, the National Resources Planning Board; the war training programs in the colleges, and their counterpart, and the Victory Corps in the high schools, to appreciate the magnitude of the changes that have been wrought.

During this period certain chronic problems in the field of reading—adult illiteracy and poor reading among school children—have acquired a new and critical urgency. This report is therefore devoted primarily to a consideration of recent research bearing on these subjects. Because of the imperative national need for action in solving these problems, this report has indulged to a more than customary degree in critical commentary and synthesis of research findings.

Summaries and bibliographies—In the three-year period covered by this report, about 350 studies were printed. Systematic summaries of these contributions appeared in several sources. Thus Gray, continuing his invaluable service, provided annual articles (29, 30, 31, 32) in the *Journal of Educational Research*, which set forth “the nature of the various investigations published during the year and . . . the more significant findings.” Each article included an annotated bibliography of over one hundred items. Gray (33) also contributed a notable summary of research in reading for the past century in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. In addition, Traxler (74) reviewed research in reading for the decade 1930-40, annotating and summarizing 618 studies; and Tinker (73) made a rather detailed report of trends in reading instruction, covering the period 1938-42. Numerous other summaries of specialized aspects of the physiology, psychology, and pedagogy of reading appeared (16, 40, 66, 70, 75, 80).

The availability of these various compilations provided another reason for limiting the present summary to reading problems of vital significance. This is not to minimize the ultimate importance of many other studies published during this period, which are at present of relatively academic interest. Students interested in other aspects of reading will find them listed, annotated, and discussed in the above mentioned summaries of Gray. Many studies relating to the constructive use of comics, the growth

of meaning vocabularies, "what reading does to people," the relative expenditures in American homes for reading materials, and so forth, are reviewed in the same sources.

Historical note—It is fitting to commemorate in this report two anniversaries of great interest to democratic educators and students of reading. The year 1942 marked the tricentennial of legislation enacted in the colony of Massachusetts requiring that all parents must teach their children to read (4). This issue of the REVIEW is dated April 1943—the bicentennial of the birth of a great American, Thomas Jefferson, who understood the significance of reading in a democracy. His prophetic statement—"If a nation expects to be ignorant and free . . . , it expects what never was and never will be"—is a challenge for our time.

Reading and the War¹

The conscription of large numbers of American men for military service has called attention once more to the relatively high degree of functional illiteracy among the adult population. According to Lt. Gen. Brehon B. Somervell (37: 9), 200,000 men were barred from military service because of illiteracy in the early period of our participation in World War II. A recent *Research Bulletin* of the NEA (57a) revealed that in an army camp near Washington, D. C., 70 percent of the Negro selectees and 11 percent of the white selectees were functionally illiterate according to army standards (ability to read a newspaper and write a letter). Hon. Elbert D. Thomas (37: 74), chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, spoke of a report that "nearly half a million Selective Service registrants" are "functionally illiterate."

These figures were the more astonishing because census reports had shown such decline in illiteracy through the years that this category was dropped from the 1940 Census in favor of number of years of schooling. The 1930 Census report placed illiteracy for the nation at 4.3 percent (2.7 percent for whites, 16.3 percent for Negroes). But Kotinsky (49) pointed out that the 4,300,000 persons who in 1930 admitted that "they still made their marks" did not include all who could not even sign their names, and that even the ability to sign one's name is no adequate evidence of literacy. She estimated that the actual rate of illiteracy by army standards is approximately four times that indicated by the census report.

It is clear that a major cause of illiteracy is sheer lack of schooling. In 1940, 10,105,000 persons in the United States who were at least twenty-five years of age had not finished five years of school work (42a). The highest rate of illiteracy is found in the South, where expenditures for education are lowest (17: 166). As Farley (19) observed, "the American people have not yet provided for their citizens a system of free and universal education." The first remedy for illiteracy would therefore seem to be a greater equalization of educational opportunity throughout the nation. *Federal aid for education becomes a military necessity in a period when illiteracy dis-*

¹ This section was prepared by John J. DeBoer.

qualifies men for war service. The attitude of the Army itself is suggested by the reported assertion of Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt after her visit to the Aberdeen, Maryland, training center that the Army is spending \$175 per month per draftee to teach reading to illiterates.²

Other focuses of illiteracy exist in the immigrant centers of our large cities and in many rural areas (65). Federal aid also is needed here to provide the remedy—a broad extension of adult education and of library facilities.

Specific proposals for federal assistance to education in wartime are now before the Congress, and the report of the National Resources Planning Board (62) advocates increase of national expenditures to more than \$6,000,000,000 in order to aim at a reading proficiency of twelfth-grade level for 90 percent of the population leaving school.

Nevertheless, the revelations concerning the reading deficiencies of selectees have had the salutary effect of causing schools and schoolmen to reexamine policies and practices for the improvement of reading. In a symposium entitled, "What Shall We Do About Reading Today?" (11) such students of the reading problem as Betts, Gates, Gray, Horn, Nila B. Smith, and Witty advanced numerous proposals for the reading program in wartime. Admitting the need for greatly increased educational opportunities for children in all parts of the United States, they stressed the desirability of improving the quality of reading instruction by (a) postponing beginning reading until children demonstrate readiness for it; (b) making reading enjoyable; (c) developing language mastery and a rich background of experiences with books; (d) providing guidance in reading in the subject fields; (e) adapting reading instruction to individual differences in abilities and interests; and (f) promoting growth in attitudes and general maturity of behavior as well as specific reading skills.

There is some evidence that the demands of military officials for competence in the so-called "work-type" reading is resulting in more or less exclusive emphasis upon relatively formal drills in outlining, following directions, noting details, and related activities essential to comprehension of purely factual reading matter. The original tendency of the Victory Corps program in the high schools, for example, lay almost entirely in the direction of purely technical preparation.³ The pronouncements of educational officials regarding the functions of secondary education in wartime, recorded in the U. S. Office of Education report of the proceedings of the National Institute on Education and the War (37: 92), gave scant attention to any reading not related to vocational, military, or civilian defense activities. The best current opinion as reflected in the symposium, previously cited, and elsewhere, condemns by implication any such one-sided emphasis.

² Information concerning the nature and results of the army program is included in a subsequent section on "Remedial Reading."

³ There are indications that subsequent editions will give more attention to other factors. The National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. Sixty-Eighth St., Chicago, Ill., has just published a *Victory Corps Reading List*, edited by Max Herzberg and others.

Basic to a limited program of instruction in reading skills is the assumption that citizens in a nation at war need be merely competent technicians. Instruction in the reading of purely factual material is undoubtedly essential, but it is to be questioned whether best results are to be obtained through direct drills alone. Evidence presented in numerous previous summaries of research, as well as in other parts of this report, points to the superior effectiveness of an enriched program of diversified reading experiences. Moreover, the requirements of citizens in a democracy, and particularly of soldiers in a people's army, are much greater than those of people in fascist countries. The understanding of the values and ideals at stake in this war, as described by President Roosevelt, Vicepresident Wallace, Undersecretary of State Sumner Welles, Wendell Willkie, and others, calls for a wide background of reading in the literature of freedom and in the literature reflecting the life and temper of our own diverse population. Such reading is imperative in a time when we are fighting for the survival of democracy.

The Causation of Illiteracy and Poor Reading

The causation of illiteracy—Adult illiteracy was attributed in the previous section largely to the inadequate financial provision for education and its attendant evils which are characteristic of certain parts of our country. This analysis is essentially correct, although it is not complete. Practically all the ills to which the human flesh is heir may inhibit and discourage learning. Of course, conditions inimical to physical and mental health abound particularly in areas having low economic status. Therefore it follows that, to some extent at least, other "causal factors" also are traceable to an unsatisfactory economic state. Nevertheless, these limiting agents, found within the organism, must be identified and understood. They will be treated briefly below—without, however, constant reference to their social milieu, because they are present more or less universally. Attention will be directed also to those conditions within schools which seem to create or foster reading difficulties despite the provision of an *amount* of schooling that should be adequate for insuring a high order of achievement.

Causation of reading disability among school children—The invariable success of remedial teaching endeavor indicates that by far the vast majority of all reading disability cases in our schools, perhaps 90 percent, are of methodological origin. Inadequate provision for individual differences at the primary-grade level seems to be the common cause of "failure" and faulty development in reading. Similarly, poor management at the upper-grade levels—characterized by the use of mass methods, standards, and materials which violate individual differences in ability, needs, and interests—confirms old casualties and creates new ones.

Although the general cause of most instances of poor reading is clear, its manifestation in any individual may reflect the operation of any one

or more of many etiological agents. Multiple rather than single causation is the rule, and although the factors are sometimes discrete and independent, usually they are complex and occur in closely interrelated constellations. Vision, learning, speech, nutrition, tonus, glandular balance, emotionality, and neurological integration are no longer conceived as simple nosological entities. They are each viewed as broad categories or congeries of complex bodily states and functions in which disturbances, irregularities, or defects *may* contribute to poor reading (5).

However, the presence of any of these conditions does not necessarily predicate reading disability, for the human organism has remarkable powers of adjustment and compensation, especially when motivation is strong. The better controlled and more adequate studies of recent years demonstrate that there is practically no correlation between the extent of organic or behavioral irregularity and the degree of poor reading in the individual (3, 16, 41, 44, 75). Thus the advance of knowledge in the field of causation has progressively lessened the certainty of a direct connection between a person's systemic aberration and his reading difficulty. At the same time current investigators are agreed that maximum proficiency in reading demands optimum health and integration of bodily functions (16, 21, 41, 79).

Other causes of individual reading disability are limited mental capacity and experiential deprivation. The former condition operates as a cause only when the child's limited potential achievement fails to be realized because the reading tasks imposed upon him exceed his readiness or ability. Teachers will lower their expectations for the occasional, extreme mental deviate, but the more numerous slow-normal child is too often held to standards and procedures derived from the performance of his mentally average classmate.

Inferior mental deviates come usually although not always from impoverished families and a barren, nonreading environment; their mental retardation reflects and is caused in part by their underprivileged socio-economic status. However, experiential deprivations, like many physical deficiencies, take various forms and occur in the homes of the rich (when proper love and guidance are lacking) as well as in the homes of the poor.

The foregoing generalized statement of modern thinking in the area of causation is based on previously reported investigations as well as upon the research of the current period. Only a few of the recent studies have been cited; for detailed coverage, the reader is referred again to Gray's annual summaries.

Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties

Only 10 percent of all poor readers (or roughly 2 percent of the entire school population), according to Gates (22), have such severe reading problems as to require the diagnostic services of specialists and clinics. A recent survey by Kopel and Geerdes (48) found that some 20,000 poor

readers were examined during 1939 in forty-one diagnostic centers participating in the study. The total number of poor readers seen in clinics may be three times this number. However, even 60,000 individuals would represent only a ninth of the number, by Gates's estimate, who need clinical attention. The same survey (48) indicated too that clinical facilities are almost nonexistent in those places where illiteracy rates are highest. The needs of most children who have reading disabilities are therefore not being met, although the thousands to whom clinics minister are undoubtedly receiving valuable aid. Fortunately clinics help many of the others indirectly by pioneering methods, which come fairly soon into classroom use for the prevention and remediation as well as the diagnosis of reading problems.

The value of diagnosis (when followed by remedial teaching) was demonstrated in studies of adults and of children at every level from the kindergarten through the college (29, 30, 31, 32). The diagnostic means usually available to teachers are adequate for determining the difficulties and needs of most children requiring remedial attention. Moreover, the increasing citation in the remedial literature of such devices as the interest inventory and of such techniques as the case study indicate that classroom diagnosis is broadening to encompass the study of many pertinent aspects of child development. Gates (21) remarked, "It is becoming increasingly the practice to spread the diagnostic net exceedingly wide. . . ."

Diagnostic technique has progressed too as a result of the definitely growing tendency of teachers and clinicians to be primarily concerned in their appraisals with *reading for meaning*. New diagnostic instruments reflect this emphasis by including tests and ratings of important reading abilities which formerly were unrecognized or ignored. For example, "The Co-operative English Test: Reading Comprehension" measures "ability to follow the organization of a passage and to identify antecedents and references," "ability to draw inferences," "ability to determine a writer's purpose, intent, and point of view," and so forth. Another promising example is "The Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities" by Van Wagenen and Dvorak. "Such tests," observes Gray (36), "will be of great value in determining the needs of pupils who are advancing normally as well as those who encounter serious difficulty."

On the basis of years of clinical experience with thousands of poor readers, the New York City schools published several exceptionally valuable bulletins on diagnosis and individualized instruction in reading (51, 52, 53). In one of these publications, Lazar and Nifenecker (52) expressed a concept of diagnosis that appears to be as sound as it is advanced and stimulating: "The diagnostic approach has been interpreted throughout this bulletin as the systematic acquisition of knowledge about the child to the end that his development may be more effectively guided. In this concept of diagnosis the emphasis is no longer on the reading failure of some children but on the reading efficiency of all children. Diagnosis does not wait today until something has gone wrong in the

learning process. Not only must the child with reading disability be helped to master the mechanics of reading, but the child who masters the mechanics must be helped to secure through his reading fuller development as a social being. In this approach, diagnosis goes beyond the study of the individual child and his specific problems to include an evaluation of the entire instructional program."

Remedial Reading

A striking change has taken place in the remedial reading studies which were published recently. Reports of remedial programs at the elementary-school level have almost disappeared from the literature. This is no indication necessarily that the amount of remedial teaching at this level is declining. The reason may be, as Gray (36) suggested, that "so many studies of remedial reading have been published that those who carried on such studies felt that there was nothing new to report."

During this same period there has been a large increase in the number of remedial reading investigations at the high-school and college levels. The necessity for such endeavor was shown in a recent study by the Research Division of the National Education Association (61) which revealed that "from ten to thirty percent of the pupils in high school are in serious need of remedial attention in reading." Numerous other reports cited the reading deficiencies of college students and the efficacy of special reading instruction for them. However, the actual number of remedial programs has been found inadequate, as yet, to care for more than a small fraction of the high-school and college students who require this attention (10, 63, 78, 81).

The sharp rise of interest in the poor reader at the upper levels has been paralleled during these years by the production of special reading textbooks. Brief analyses of many of these books (and of other professional treatises devoted to remedial reading) are provided in Tinker's summary (7). These volumes appear to be a distinct contribution to the arsenal of resources for the improvement of reading. Moreover, the availability of these books should facilitate the work of the teacher and stimulate the initiation of many new remedial programs. It should be noted, however, that the usefulness of such texts depends upon a judicious selection of materials from them, appropriate to the needs of the individual student (46, 54).

Several valuable principles were advanced in the previously quoted NEA study (61) for the administration of remedial programs at the secondary level: "(a) begin remedial reading at the present level of the pupils' skills and tastes; (b) make pupils conscious of the nature of their weaknesses and their ability to overcome them; (c) whenever possible, use, as practice materials, the selections pupils need to read in connection with their regular class work; (d) introduce variety into the training provided; (e) follow up the pupils after dismissal from remedial activities until it is certain that they are successfully readjusted."

Army Program of Remedial Education

Of current interest and importance is the Army's remedial program for illiterate soldiers. The War Department has delegated the task of teaching these men largely to educators and psychologists. This staff "has produced a great deal of original instructional material in the form of textbooks, film strips, periodicals, and current event leaflets, as well as aids and guides for instructors. . . . Much emphasis has been placed upon visual aids as a valuable auxiliary in training; auditory, visual, and kinesthetic sensory mechanisms are used to the fullest extent to augment each other and to assure the learner of means that will be adapted to his particular learning pattern" (69).

Concerning the efficacy of this work, Lt. Col. Seidenfeld (69) asserted that "many thousands of men have already been made more useful in the army; . . . with present techniques about 95 percent of all the men sent to special [educational] training successfully complete their instruction and go on to regular [military] training." This evidence of the worth of remedial endeavor is especially gratifying because of the notable contribution it represents to the war effort.

The growing acceptance among educators of sound, experimentally validated remedial procedures is reflected in summaries of recent research by Betts (6), Gates (21), Gray (36), Tinker (73), and others. Of course, some undesirable practices persist. Thus Tinker (73) warned of "a tendency on the part of several writers to emphasize the use of various machines, such as the eye-movement camera and devices to develop rhythmic reading, for diagnosis and training, without any clear understanding of their validity and limitations. Uncritical use of such apparatus tends to foster the concept that reading is a mechanical process, a view which is deleterious to sound progress in reading instruction. Furthermore, it tends to divert attention from the highly important assimilation and thinking side of reading. Fortunately, a few writers are evaluating the use of these machines and cautioning teachers on the uncritical use of them."

Among the latter are Anderson (1) and Gates (21). Both cite evidence negating the claims made for a widely publicized machine, the Metronoscope, by its manufacturers. Gates remarked that "the remedial reading expert who is dependent upon a special kit of tricks, stunts, devices, and gadgets is rapidly being driven out of fashion by the brute force of careful study and experimentation."

Principles of Remediation

Gates (21) has recently reported an impressive list of diagnostic and remedial studies conducted under his direction. On the basis of this work he has formulated a number of fundamental principles of remedial endeavor, which he believes are receiving ever-wider acceptance. Thus, "a wholesome and happy experience in school as a whole is an important,

often indispensable, feature of remedial instruction as it is of ordinary teaching. This has been indicated in the work of the New York City WPA project and I think even more clearly in the five-year experiment just completed in the Speyer School, Public School 500, especially in the case of seven classes of dull-normal children, I.Q.'s 75-90, and a special group of reading disabilities. In a large proportion of these cases progress seemed to depend greatly upon the teacher's ability to restore a pupil's self-confidence and enjoyment of the school program as a whole.

"There is also," he believes, "a growing tendency to recognize that a well-rounded, varied program of normal reading activities nicely adjusted to individual needs is a more fruitful remedial or preventive procedure than any one of the more specialized artificial types of remedial devices or stunts. We are beginning to see that some of the narrow, restricted forms of drill, previously popular and still in existence, are more or less in the category of the traveling-medicine-show pills and gadgets. For the reading disability we rarely need anything more than the best and richest normal program applied with particular care and intelligence to the individual case."

Developmental Reading

One of the most important developments of the recent period has been the growing awareness that continuous guidance of reading is needed at all educational levels not alone for the retarded, but for the average and "good" readers as well. Reasons for this instruction were advanced by Tinker (73): "Adequate reading at any level depends upon the refinement and development of the more mature aspects of the abilities considered at the preceding levels. As the importance of this viewpoint receives greater recognition, there will be less remedial reading taught in high schools and colleges and more time devoted to teaching the reading skills needed to adapt adequately to the special reading situations encountered there." The phrase "developmental reading" has come into vogue to describe the many procedures and arrangements now followed in schools for rendering this service to all students.

A considerable number of investigations yielded evidence of the value of providing reading instruction at the upper levels. (These studies are reported in Gray's summaries and need not be reviewed here.) Many special textbooks appeared, designed for developmental as well as remedial purposes. Extensive conferences were devoted in whole or in part to developmental reading (25, 26, 27, 28). All professional treatises published during the period devoted at least some parts to the topic, and several noteworthy volumes by Bond and Bond (7), a national committee (35), Monroe, Roberts, and Stone (55), Pullen (60), Strang (72), and Witty and Kopel (79), were concerned entirely with reading at the secondary level or as a schoolwide function from first grade to college.

The characteristics of a sound developmental reading program have

been stated succinctly by Holland Roberts (65) in a series of recommendations to educators, as follows:

Organize a schoolwide reading program in every educational system, extending from pre-school through the junior college. Such a program would begin with each child and student at his own level of ability and interest and help him develop his reading capacities, habits and attitudes as rapidly as possible. In building it the following features are recommended:

- a. Major emphasis to be on reading material of vital significance to the individual and to society.
- b. The purpose of reading to be conceived as action directed toward the general welfare.
- c. The reading plan for the school to be organized and supervised with the assistance of a schoolwide and later a communitywide committee representing all teaching levels and subject areas, and interested groups.
- d. Growth in reading for every child and youth to be thought of as the responsibility of every member of the staff, irrespective of his special field.
- e. Organization of a reading center in each school and system to make continuous study of reading development possible, and to provide special services for retarded and handicapped children. Such centers have been found very successful. They do not take over responsibility for the program in reading but cooperate with other teachers in analyzing problems, developing plans, and getting the work well started. Part of the time and energy is devoted to the children and students and part of it to consultation with other teachers.
- f. The development of reading readiness to be a prerequisite for beginning reading, and a permanent feature of the program at all levels of growth.
- g. Classes not to exceed thirty children.
- h. Expert health and psychological services.
- i. Experienced, expert leadership by one or more specialists in reading.

Adjust teachers' class loads to allow individualization of the reading program. Experience in every part of the United States indicates that children and youth who are retarded in reading can be most effectively helped through a combined program of school and class activity, small group work, and individual teaching. Polls made in the Stanford Reading Center over a period of the last four years show that retarded readers report that their greatest satisfaction and gains come through their work with individual counselors.

Extend school and community library facilities. Reading occurs when books and magazines are accessible. We need to build a reading environment for every child, youth, and adult in every community in the United States. For this a good central community library is important, but insufficient. It is necessary to take books and magazines to the people in many ways: through branch libraries, storytellers, radio, choral reading, motion pictures, dramatization, and children's and adult theaters.

Equally important is the development of the school library program. The work of the librarian should extend itself into every classroom through classroom libraries. Pertinent books and magazines are as important in laboratories, shops, and gymnasiums as in any other division of the school. Every teacher can be a force in the building of the reading environment for every child, and in influencing his reading growth.

The Prevention of Poor Reading; Readiness

In education, as in medicine, prophylaxis is more desirable and beneficial than remediation. Poor reading can be prevented in the middle- and upper-elementary grades by means of continuous guidance, or developmental programs of instruction in reading. Most reading casualties, however, have their inception in the first grade—where they can generally

be averted with ease and economy. This has been demonstrated repeatedly by various studies of the elements determining readiness and success in beginning reading. The toll of "reading failures" in the first grade has been reduced remarkably in many schools through the initiation of reading readiness programs. Preventive measures then are predominantly reading readiness measures. Indeed it is as reprehensible today for a teacher or school administrator to ignore the use of reading readiness policies in combating the blight of reading disability as it would be for a public health official to do without antitoxin in fighting smallpox.

Research of the last three years has continued to reflect considerable interest in the use of readiness- and intelligence-test scores for classifying children in the first grade and for predicting their success in reading. An increasing number of investigators, however, have been advocating that additional, more valid indexes of readiness be sought in a child's preschool reading activities (76, 77), organic development (58), experiential background (39, 59), emotional status and language usage (38, 45).

Formal vs. Preparatory Experiences; Postponement

A major issue continued to stimulate controversy and experimentation: Shall reading instruction be postponed for any or all children until they are demonstrably "ready"? Both affirmative and negative answers were reported in the literature, which merits some analysis here.

Reports by Fallon (18) and by Johnson (42) testified to the practicality and value in a large school system (Chicago) of giving immature first graders a semester of "preparatory" experiences instead of reading instruction. Boney and Lynch (8) also provided evidence of the value of postponing reading instruction for slow "growers" or learners.

Another investigator (64) reported the results of a readiness program consisting of measures to improve physical health and to foster emotional and intellectual development without reading instruction. She found that the experimental group progressed faster after reading was begun than did two other "regular reading" groups. By the end of the second and third years in school the experimental group equaled the control groups although the former had received five months less instruction than the latter.

An important investigation bearing on this topic was made by Morphett and Washburne (56). They delayed systematic reading instruction for an experimental group until it was in the middle of the second grade. Test scores of these children were inferior during their first three years in school, but thereafter they improved to equal and then to surpass the controls. Thus, in the seventh grade, their average Stanford reading grade of 10.1 was a whole grade above that of the controls; their scores in other subjects, and their ratings on spontaneity, were similarly superior to those earned by the controls. The investigators concluded that the substitution of a wide variety of educational experiences "whets children's appetites

for learning and results in increased progress throughout the child's elementary school life."

Gates and Pritchard (23) demonstrated the effectiveness of an activity program for slow-learning children (with I.Q.'s between 70 and 90). Reading and other subjects were taught as they were needed in promoting the major enterprises of the group. This instruction was carefully planned and nicely adjusted to individual differences in ability and interest. Basal readers and workbooks were used moderately. However, far less time was devoted to reading instruction than in a control school. Periodic tests over a period of years revealed growth in reading ability that was commensurate with Stanford-Binet mental age. One group, upon graduation, were "seventh grade readers in vocabulary and comprehension" and sixth grade in speed. Comparisons with the control children favored the "guinea pigs" who were "somewhat superior" in reading ability and "strikingly superior" in amount of independent reading. In addition, these children later in the secondary school gave evidence that "they had put reading and other forms of learning to especially good use . . . in a more realistic choice of a future educational program and vocational career," and had achieved, generally, "a more wholesome adjustment to life."

In a chapter on reading in a recent book evaluating modern education (50), Wrightstone reviewed several other studies of reading progress in activity curriculums wherein extensive reading instruction has been usually postponed for a semester or more and subordinated to the business of carrying on important group projects. He showed that children in such programs make slower progress at first, but they usually achieve or surpass the ordinary standards by the end of the second or third year in school. In later grades they maintain a slight superiority in those aspects of reading ability measured by standardized tests. They excel, significantly enough, in the ability to read critically and purposefully, and in the tendency to read widely. The validity of these results is now firmly established by their consistent production over a period of many years, in a diversity of locations, under a variety of public- and private-school conditions, with children of practically every ability level.

Only one study during the last three years yielded recommendations which run somewhat counter to the trend reported up to this point. Dice (14) claimed slightly better results in reading skills and free reading from a "direct approach" (immediate introduction to the hearing, discussion, and reading of stories in their entirety) than from a "preparatory approach" (a two-month period of reading readiness activities followed by word drills and other reading instruction). However, high and average ability groups did equally well (or poorly) under both methods. Only the low ability groups achieved higher scores as a rule under the "direct approach." Approximately a third of the scores on various tests at the end of the year, under both methods, were so low that they doubtless represent a great deal of failure and frustration for the children who obtained them. Thus at the end of the experiment 58 of 171 children in the experimental

group, and a similar proportion of the controls, obtained scores of *less than zero* on a special "test designed to measure the ability of the two groups to read independently and to attack new materials successfully." This conclusion does not appear in the study; interpretation of results was confined by the investigator almost invariably to a comparison of means and measures of variability. Instead of demonstrating the "superiority" of one method over another, this study in effect condemns both programs of instruction as unfit for use with human beings.

Several other investigations gave similar proof—if proof is wanted—that children of low as well as normal and high intelligence *can* be taught to read in the first grade by any one of many methods. Roslow (67), assuming explicitly that reading must be taught in Grade I, reported considerable success in adapting instruction for children with mental ages below six and below the average in I.Q. and in reading readiness. (Whether the reading gains of these children were permanent was not disclosed.) Keister (43) found that it is possible "for children who enter Grade I before they reach the age of six to make normal progress in reading during the first year." These gains, however, tended to disappear during the summer months and the loss was not made up in succeeding years.

Gates and Russell (24) and Steinbach (71) also have shown that some first-grade children with mental ages of less than six years six months can learn to read when skilful individualized instruction is provided. Similarly, by means of continuous teaching adjustments, Dunklin (15) succeeded in keeping most of his "potential failures" from failing in a formal reading program (employing a basic text, workbooks, and so forth). Nevertheless, Dunklin concluded that "the first grade child's welfare should be the deciding factor in planning his program. Under some circumstances, a program which enables him to learn to read will be advisable. Under others, one of the many types of non-reading programs will best serve his needs."

The foregoing studies which show the possibility of teaching reading formally to five- and six-year-olds cast serious doubt, however, on the wisdom of so doing. None of these studies proves that an early start insures a high degree of reading competence in later years. None provides any evidence that the heavy investment of time and effort by teachers and children yields any dividends beyond an immediate attainment of limited performance standards which are functionally quite meaningless in the child's life.

The evidence predominantly favors the view that postponement of formal instruction in reading for one or more semesters after entrance to school is beneficial for many children; whereas forcing children to read in the first grade without respect for individual differences in ability and need is definitely deleterious and, occasionally, traumatic. The investment of first-grade time in experience yields rich benefits in *meanings* which may later be associated economically and purposefully with abstract symbols.

Development of Reading Readiness Is Teaching Reading

Some of the proponents of reading instruction in the first grade now urge the simultaneous provision of meaningful experience. This proposal is not realistic, however, in view of the fact that a full third of the school day is devoted to reading activities by the typical first-grade teacher who provides formal reading instruction. There simply is not time for teaching reading formally *and* for providing a rich program of experience.

It is important to note certain fallacies in the concept of reading readiness held by many persons (47). Wilson and Sartorius (77) pointed out that these errors usually stem from the incorrect notion that the reading process is found only in the interpretation of "connected discourse from books, charts, or perhaps the blackboard or prepared paper materials. All preceding stages or steps are considered [incorrectly] to be developing 'readiness' for reading. That is, during the period before entering Grade I children develop mental and other abilities and interests which set them 'ready' to learn to read. The implication is that these 'reading readiness' stages are fundamentally different from the steps in learning to read. A sounder and more realistic view is that these two widely separated periods of development are actually stages in the same basic process of learning to read." These investigators avoid the use of the misleading phrase "reading readiness" by speaking instead of "early progress in reading."

The validity of this view becomes apparent as one lists the activities involving printed or written materials in which many children engage long before they enter school. They handle books, turn pages, look at pictures, play with alphabet blocks, recognize words and letters, and learn to associate a favorite story with a given book. Some of these activities may occur as early as the age of two. Let there be no mistake: these are rudimentary *reading* activities. A child so engaged is reading, learning to read, and preparing to read on more advanced levels simultaneously. When these children arrive in the first grade—or the kindergarten—the schools should ascertain the amount and quality of their reading experience and build on that foundation. Continuity between the child's preschool life and his early school experiences is a prerequisite for a wholesome, educative primary-grade curriculum (20, 77, 79).

Reading Readiness Programs Must Be Broad

Studies of "reading readiness" have served to emphasize the indispensability of a rich background of experience before children can profit from intensive application to books. The provision of readiness or preparatory programs for immature children is beneficial so far as they provide worthy, educative experiences and foster balanced growth of the whole child.

Many readiness programs, however, are narrowly conceived with the simple "shoehorn" objective of easing the child, after a time, into an inflexible, and poor-fitting reading curriculum. Such readiness programs

consist largely of exercises which parallel the contents of readiness tests and simulate some of the skills (mainly perceptual) involved in elementary reading. Practice on these tests enables the child finally to obtain a satisfactory score on the readiness test, and (largely because he has lived several additional months) to engage successfully then in the typical reading program. This type of readiness program has the virtue of saving pupils from the worse evil of immediate subjection to incomprehensible and stultifying reading tasks. Nevertheless, it perverts and distorts the implications of research data about reading and child development. As far as it makes of reading skill an ultimate end in education rather than a valuable instrument for the attainment of worthy personal and social goals, it is still another ironic manifestation of what Dewey (13) forty-five years ago recognized as the "primary education fetish."

The prevention of poor reading depends then upon *subordinating* reading instruction and "reading readiness" activities to a program of living—of exploration, cooperation, and expression—in a curriculum organized around "significant group enterprises" (20). In such a school, no pressure is exerted upon the child to read; he is not coaxed and cajoled to do practice exercises, to read primarily for the sake of learning to read. He is not given marks and grades. Children are not required to drone the sickly repetitive, emasculated fare of preprimers and other "basic" texts. They are not segregated invidiously into "reading" and "readiness" groups. They are not threatened with failure for not achieving the arbitrary standards set by overzealous and misguided adults.

Reading is not shunned nor its value minimized in an activity school. On the contrary, such a school prizes reading so much that it is ready to give up any unsound or dubious practice, no matter how venerable, that stands in the way of developing able and habitual users of print (12, 57). The experience program calls for reading at every level. Indeed, the activity school provides a reading environment even in the kindergarten for all children, irrespective of their degree of "readiness." Its curriculum calls for books in every primary-grade classroom—many of them with gay covers, colorful illustrations, and large type. It calls for the use of these books by the children and the teacher. The teacher reads from them for their entertainment value, at the same time acquainting the children with important characteristics of reading materials and with devices for deriving meaning from print. Children are encouraged at some time in the day to browse among the books and to ask questions about them. The teacher also demonstrates the use of books for securing information—when it is needed to answer children's questions. The children have and use many other opportunities to read: name plates, dates, directions, schedules, memorandums, and brief compositions dictated to the teacher.

This description of an activity or experience school and its reading procedures is far from complete. Helpful, detailed blueprints are available in publications by Gans (20), Gates and Pritchard (23), the California Curriculum Commission (77), de Lima (12), and others. When such

curriculums, with their inherent measures for preventing poor reading, prevail in the primary grades of America, the problem of poor reading will largely disappear.

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CHAPTER II

Literature in School Instruction

BERNICE E. LEARY

THE LAST THREE YEARS have been marked by little research of sufficient scope and importance to make outstanding contribution to the teaching of literature (19, 25, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77). In view of this fact, there are included in this chapter reports other than those based on genuine research. They are pronouncements of specialists in literature, of committees, and of subcommittees, who have analyzed the contemporary scene, surveyed child development and the learning process, explored books, and presented fresh challenges to elementary- and secondary-school teachers.

Function of Literature in Personal-Social Development

That "pupils are people" whose personalities should be respected and allowed to expand to their fullest capacities is the theme of a monograph of that name prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English (3), in which cooperating contributors showed how individual needs, desires, interests, and problems might be met through reading experiences suited to "the person, time, and place." Pursuant of this same point of view, Broening (10) pointed to the forces that are reshaping the function of literature—"the one-sided battle between out-of-school life and in-school English," the impact of social change upon the school population, and the need for understanding a world of conflicting social, religious, and political theories.

With the imminence of war as an added force in 1940, the Committee on International Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English (33) explored the possibilities of literature as a means of sustaining peace, brotherhood, and democracy. Faced with the reality of war two years later, the Basic Aims Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English (6) defined the purposes that literature should serve in time of conflict by way of enriching personal living, deepening understanding of social relationships, illuminating the contemporary scene, developing insight into the American attitude of mind and conditions of life, and promoting national unity. Similar functions were defined by the Planning Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English (61) from a study of the role of the teacher of English in the present war emergency. Neither of these last two reports is in any way antagonistic to the first. Each rather supplements the other in impregnating the mind of its readers with the idea that literature plays a vital role in the life of a pupil only when it helps him to solve the problems of living.

Inspiring and convincing as these reports are, they must be recognized as advances of thought on the part of particular individuals or professional groups rather than commonly accepted theory. The confusion as

to what literature is for was shown by Neff (56), from an examination of contemporary books on the teaching of literature. Such confusion is not unexpected when viewed against brief historical surveys of reforms in the functions of literature, of which those by LaBrant (41), Pooley (62), and the Joint Committee of the Faculty of Harvard College and of the Graduate School of Education (35) are representative. The Joint Committee took issue with the current experience function of literature which "expects that the English teacher shall especially take on 'guidance' as part of his professional duties," and which determines the inclusion of a book for high-school use in English, not on its literary merit, but on whether it can be "fused with an immediate interest of the pupil, of other parts of the curriculum, or of society at large." Both confusion and disagreement seem inevitable until some means is devised for judging the validity of proposed functions of literature in terms of what is literature, what is the specific job of the teacher of literature, and what are the outcomes of controlled literary experiences when lived through for clearly recognized purposes.

The most tangible evidence of the trend in the direction of "literature for experience" lies in studies of literary materials for personal and social worth. Beginning with a scrutiny of the interests, problems, and concerns of young people, Lenrow (44) explored the field of prose fiction and compiled a bibliography of novels that offer students in general education a balanced diet for growth and culture. His choice of fiction as a field of study was determined by a preliminary survey of the outside reading of 270 students in Grades X through XII, which showed an unmistakable preference for fiction, particularly novels. The bibliography lists 1,500 titles, classified into categories representative of individual needs, and annotated to emphasize the aspect of each book that pertains to the subject-category in which it is listed. About one-third of the titles may be regarded as "classics," while the remainder "have the disadvantage of being, with a few exceptions, limited in the qualities that make for permanence, and the advantage of being contemporary or near-contemporary in interest." Lenrow's work has wide practical significance both in planning a literature program based on pupils' personal interests and social concerns, and in evaluating the range and value of materials which are selected or assigned for pupil-reading.

Other studies concerned with materials for use in meeting personal and social problems in the secondary school are those by McClellan (49), who surveyed stream-of-consciousness novels, and McCoy (50), who investigated the content of modern novels published from 1928 to 1937. McClellan concluded that the stream-of-consciousness novel approaches vicarious experience more fully than any other, and should therefore supplement the more traditional novels in the secondary school in order that pupils may experience "the whole of life" through reading. McCoy selected fifty novels as most important in dealing with certain contemporary social problems previously identified from outlines and reports of the social studies.

Murschel (54) evaluated a wide range of literary materials for guidance in high school and selected those of greatest usefulness for giving pupils a knowledge of the world of work, moral and religious values, and insight into human relationships. Lombard (46) selected and organized various types of materials in American literature around such centers of pupil-interest as health, youth, nature, people, leisure, and careers, as an aid to teachers who are changing their literature programs from a "type" to an "experience" approach.

To meet the growing need for understanding other nations, Dominicovich (13, 14), acting as chairman of the Committee on International Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English, compiled from bibliographical material, two lists of foreign books in English, one dealing with Latin-American literature, and the other with Russian literature. Both lists need to be tested through firsthand examination by teachers, and subsequent classroom use, before their appropriateness for secondary schools can be established. Hogan and Yeschko (28) examined and evaluated recent children's books on Latin America in revising and enlarging their bibliography for elementary grades, first compiled in 1938.

A number of investigators surveyed literature which portrays the spirit of America and the meaning of our democratic heritage. For example, Lyons (47) compiled a selective list of the best stories set in various states of the Union for Grades V to VIII. Edman (16) directed a committee of teachers which selected literary materials that show the struggles of American pioneers, for a unit in Grades VII and VIII. Downs (15) answered the question, "What literature for college students will preserve the democratic tradition in America?" by choosing literature that reveals man in "his right relationship to himself, to nature, and to state," without regard for racial or national boundaries, chronological sequence, or literary form.

Surveys of Curriculum

As has been the case in recent years, a number of investigations have been concerned with the historical background and the present status of the literature curriculum. The majority of these studies are local in character and of relatively small general interest, but most of them point to trends in either curriculum content or instructional practices.

Content—Current reliance on literature for an understanding of our national life and ideals gives more than usual importance to studies of American literature in secondary schools and higher institutions. Lewis (45) surveyed instruction in American literature in colleges and universities of the United States between 1827 and 1939. He found little evidence of professional interest in that field until after 1870, and no established courses until 1890. He traced progress thereafter to the influence of Bliss Perry, Brander Matthews, Percy Boynton, F. L. Pattee, and other literary authorities, whose course offerings in the American novel, short story, and drama ultimately brought the average time given to American

literature in colleges and universities up to the present 11.6 semester hours, or about 15 percent of the total English curriculum. Supplementing this study, Flanagan (18) determined the current status of American literature by counting the courses listed in the 1939-40 bulletins of twenty-five higher institutions selected from various geographic and enrolment groups. His findings showed hardly a college or university that was not offering at least one survey course in American literature. Beyond this introductory course, the work varied, many institutions offering "type" courses, "period" courses, or courses devoted to single authors. Others provided courses in regional literature or in American civilization. Few institutions approached the University of Chicago with fourteen separate courses in American literature or the University of Wisconsin with twelve, either because of prejudice against native letters or shortage of adequately trained instructors.

With respect to American literature in secondary schools, McBride's analysis (48) of the English curriculums of 365 antebellum academies in the South revealed practically no American literature and almost a complete disregard for any literature as such. Course titles found in catalogs, for example, "Pope's Essay on Man for a Parsing Book," "Parsing of the Poets," and "Parsing Milton," indicated that great literature was used to furnish exercises in grammar, "since the sentences were so delightfully hard for students to untangle in parsing and diagramming." For the period from 1905 to 1940, Johnson (34) discovered a marked trend toward the use of American literature, shorter selections, and an increasing number of selections in high-school literature in Georgia.

An increased interest in poetry was reported by Smallwood (69) from an examination of methods and activities used in the teaching of literature based upon the *English Journal* from 1930 to 1937. Support for the contention that modern school readers give little attention to poetry in the primary grades, was offered by Stevens (82), who found a total of 196 poems in the second and third readers of eleven popular series. They represented only 4.2 percent of the total pages in the second-grade readers and 3.6 percent in third grade. The quality of the poems, however, was generally high. Most of them were written by recognized poets, and dealt with themes of interest to primary children.

Recognizing the value of biography for character education, personality development, and vocational guidance, M. L. Smith (78) examined high-school and college English programs, and found that the use of biography was not generally established. Where courses were offered, modern American biography ranked first, and English biography second.

Practices.—The most detailed surveys of teaching practices in literature, reported in the three-year period, were those by D. V. Smith (70, 71), from her observations of elementary and secondary schools during the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. She found limited time being devoted to literature in the primary grades, while in the intermediate grades there persisted a

devotion to "grade poets," which in some cases constituted the entire program in literature. At the secondary level, emphasis was chiefly on the actual reading of *belles-lettres*, all members of a class engaging in an intensive study of a single selection. Only about 15 percent of the schools engaged in broad reading units with an extensive approach to literature. Not literature for life, but literature for literature, was the general purpose of instruction.

A survey by French (20) of prevailing practices of teaching introductory college courses in literature "to make the course enjoyable," revealed wide differences among fifty colleges in the type of introductory course offered, the texts used, the practices followed, and the benefits derived. The importance of capitalizing on pupils' known interests and of providing a wealth of reading material was emphasized in a survey of successful practices in reading instruction by the Research Division of the National Education Association (55). This report contains specific suggestions for arousing interest in literature, compiled from questionnaire returns from 320 "outstanding" teachers.

Methods of Teaching

A large number of studies reported in the past three years have been concerned with methods of teaching literature. As in previous periods, most of them are classroom "experiments" with specific procedures.

The foremost contribution to teaching methods was the now famous "Eight-Year Study," reported by Giles (21), from evidence secured through observation and appraisal of new methods of teaching, evaluation of the success of the experimental secondary schools in achieving their stated objectives, and a follow-up study of the graduates of these schools which compared their success in college with that of graduates from schools following the standard program and complying with traditional admission requirements. Graduates in the Eight-Year Study obtained higher grades in English than matched graduates from other schools, and also enjoyed more social contacts and seemed better adjusted to college life. One group was found to have done eight times as much reading, and yet to have taken part in one-third more extracurriculum activities than the compared group.

Norvell (57) used twenty-four equated experimental and control groups in high school in comparing a plan that featured wide individual reading with the traditional plan of teaching literature. Results showed that the experimental method was superior for both unselected and superior groups, was liked better by both superior and weak pupils, and was preferred by teachers, who found it as easy to administer as the traditional. LaBrant and Heller (42) described and evaluated a free reading program, which showed that under constant exposure to that type of program, pupils in Grades VII to XII made definite gains in quantity and variety of reading done, in a consistently growing attention to serious reading, and in ability to discriminate.

The potentialities of literature for developing life-values were investigated by Crowe (12) through a controlled experiment of the effect on high-school sophomores of teaching English with emphasis on guidance. Her findings revealed that literature units organized in terms of special needs and interests, instead of the conventional pattern, resulted in greater growth in emotions and attitudes and greater interest in literature, although somewhat lower achievement. Amy (1) offered evidence to show that although students tend to read literature conveying recognizable life-values and to recognize these values, they are not swayed toward a preference for this type of material.

Anderson, Lemon, Schuler, and Shepherd (2) presented a practical and valuable series of units in literature as the product of years of experimentation. These units were chosen to illustrate correlation of literature with other subjects, integration of literature and composition, and other aspects of the literature program.

Developing appreciation—In an attempt to isolate factors in the appreciation of poetry, Hruza (29) analyzed students' responses to phonographically reported poems as measured by psychogalvanometer, pneumograph, controlled interview, and word-phrase association. Her findings showed that rhythm, treatment of subjectmatter, nearness of content to experience, and order of presentation may influence reactions in a positive or a negative direction. Meeks (51) observed that an enriched program of varied activities, planned to increase appreciation of poetry and drama, not only increased the pleasure that college sophomores derived from literary experiences, but also developed critical judgment and discrimination. Similarly, a synthetic account compiled by Risden (63) from reports of several observers showed that the esthetic experiences of children from five to fifteen were enhanced by the use of an activity room, dance studio, or other special room where they might "talk to themselves" through the medium of colors, sounds, shapes, words, or movements.

Employing simple tests to check retention, understanding, and enjoyment of stories and poetry presented by radio, Arbuthnot (4) discovered little correlation between children's lack of reading skill and retention, or between understanding and enjoyment when no reading was involved. R. E. Smith (79) secured data to show that while intelligence influenced the choice and amount of unassigned poetry memorized by sixth-grade children, sex had little influence on the number of poems voluntarily memorized.

Power-testing—The dissatisfaction of teachers with the usual literature test, which merely sounds out pupils' knowledge of books studied, was shown by Jonas (36), who reported an attempt to develop a test that would measure the power of pupils to deal with books that might be read later. She concluded that power to deal with fresh material could not be perfectly measured and that a power-test should not be substituted for present measuring devices, although it "offered a refreshing change" and "had far deeper value" for the student.

Supervision—As the result of a study of the effect of supervision upon

pupil achievement, Kinhart (39) found that all groups taught by supervised teachers showed evidences of superior attainment throughout the experiment, and made greater final gains in literature than any unsupervised group. Unfortunately, the use of teachers' marks as a measure of achievement, plus the fact that most of the supervisor-teacher endeavors—such as analyzing the learning scale of pupils, examining English objectives, and providing for individual differences—were those generally associated with good teaching, makes it impossible to conclude from this study that supervised teaching has advantages not inherent in unsupervised teaching.

Placement of Reading Materials

The teaching of literature for personal and social values demands the selection of reading materials from which pupils are able to secure larger understandings and deeper appreciations. There has been a conspicuous interest in recent years in studying both books and readers to determine what is the right book for a particular reader. This interest has continued to loom large in the past three-year interval.

Of first importance is Painter's synthesis (59) of research on the placement of selections in English literature according to interest and difficulty. She reviewed critically the methods and results of 144 studies, and tabulated all findings separately, according to interest or difficulty, before combining results. The synthesized data indicated points on which investigators of pupil-interests agreed, selections named by ten or more investigators as books most liked by pupils, selections for which pupil-dislike seemed definite, selections for which investigators were in close agreement on grade-placement, and comparative placements of selections according to interest and difficulty. Discrepancies in placements by these two criteria point to the need for more objective means of determining placement.

Interest—References to studies of interest are limited to those having particular significance for teachers of literature. With respect to interest in the classics, Hall (24) found high-school pupils definitely divided. Of 1,500 questioned in the study, the best students had no quarrel with the classics, average students put in a plea for more contemporary literature, while others complained of the vocabulary, the "unreal" people, and the "outmoded manners" of the classics. Votes for more extensive reading were accompanied by the well-founded argument that it "was foolish to spend too much time on one book" when more reading, particularly of contemporary books, would "create a love for good books, form better reading habits, and help in solving problems." Similarly, Ortman (58) discovered that high-school pupils were not completely averse to Shakespeare, although they had difficulty in visualizing action and in following intricate plots. That pupils are not familiar with the classics included on high-school reading lists, regardless of interest, was observed by Pettingill (60), who concluded that poor format prevents many older books from being read voluntarily.

Kramer's survey (40) of investigations dealing with children's interests in poetry showed that "children like children's poetry," particularly recent poetry, and that the apparently negative results of early investigations were due to the use of inappropriate poetry. Familiar poetry with subject-matter within the range of a child's understanding, was emphasized by Barber (5) in a study of poetry selections for children six years of age or under. That the factor of familiarity may operate even among high-school pupils was pointed out by Wyatt (91), who found that of self-selected poems for reading aloud, more than half came directly from regular course content. Hunt (31) concluded that poetry "which is active, colorful, tells a story, arouses sympathy, is cheerful, and has marked rhythm" is best suited to the literary tastes of tenth-grade pupils; while Humble (30) found that among high-school boys, the poems meeting almost unanimous approval were those which appealed to chivalry, love of adventure, humor, and idealism.

The Newbery Prize books, centers of perennial speculation and controversy, were subjects of two investigations, which resulted in a curious mixture of agreement and controversy as to who likes what, and how much. Zeligs (93) secured the opinions of 150 pupils of superior reading ability in sixth grade, and Lawrence (43) examined the cumulative library records of 38 elementary pupils over an eight-year period. Both investigators found that certain titles were more popular than others; but whereas Zeligs' evidence showed that only a small number of children read Newbery books, and a still smaller number, chiefly superior readers, liked them, Lawrence's data indicated that children read more titles and read them more often than their school records showed, that the books brought enthusiastic reactions, and that the reading was confined to no particular intelligence or grade level. She maintained that data would not support the practice of stipulating a grade level at which a particular book is to be read; rather, that starting early is the best guarantee of a child's reading a Newbery book. It is obvious that the question of interest in the Newbery books will not be settled until investigators study larger numbers of cases and control the various factors that determine reading preferences. Whether such studies should be made of the Newbery books any more than of any others, is a question.

Difficulty—Most of the studies of difficulty during the last three years, as in earlier periods, have been concerned with vocabulary. For example, Woody (90) analyzed the vocabulary burden of a textbook in literature designed for tenth grade and concluded that it was too heavy for pupils "to get fun out of reading." Figurel (17) compared the vocabulary difficulty level of seven high-school classics, as determined on the basis of the Yoakum scale, with the choices of 168 ninth-grade pupils. His data showed that many of the selections were far too difficult for a large proportion of the pupils to read. Bradley's study (7) of *Little Men*, and Sweeney's analysis (84) of *Ivanhoe* and *Silas Marner* indicated that the range of vocabulary was well within the standards set by investigators for the grades using the

books. On the other hand, King's study (38) of fifty selected words in English poetry pointed to the cause of some of the confused and erroneous ideas that result from the reading of classical poetry in high school.

That familiar words abound in familiar books, for example, *Treasure Island*, *David Copperfield*, and *The Oregon Trail*, was shown by Strang (83), who emphasized the need for more understanding, not only of the vocabulary, but also of difficulty generally, before a book is designated easy or difficult. Kessler (37) and Jackman (32) determined the difficulty of selected books on the basis of vocabulary and sentence length, and agreed that there are other factors which determine difficulty or maturity level.

A new and challenging approach to difficulty was made by Sample (65), who analyzed nine books of fiction by writers commonly read by adolescents, for values and assumptions that give the reader erroneous notions and act as handicaps to his natural growth and development. The findings proved conclusively that there are "pitfalls in fiction" of which both teachers and pupils need to be aware. It remains to be proved, however, whether pupils can be trained to interpret literature through examining its assumptions, and whether they will become "as alert intellectually to the literature they read as they are responsive emotionally."

Reading the Comics

The strong appeal of the comic book for children and the unfriendly attitude that it has created on the part of many adults have given rise to questions that research has only begun to answer. Witty and Foster (88) compiled opposing points of view toward the comics and reported investigations showing the relationship of comic reading to various aspects of growth. Studies of children's interest in comics were made by Hill and Trent (27), Steere (81), Witty (86, 87, 89), and Young (92), who provided convincing evidence of the intensity of children's interests in the comics at different grade levels, identified favorite comic strips and comic books, and compared reading comics with other forms of amusement. Thorndike's analysis (85) of the content and difficulty of four comic books showed that a child "reading one comic book a month gets as much wordage as from a new fourth or fifth reader," and meets a vocabulary difficulty estimated at fifth or sixth grade. Some of the appeal of the comic book is explained by Merchant's study (52), which revealed that the circumstances and situations considered funny by fourth-grade children were exaggerated action of people or animals, unexpected happenings, animals doing unexpected things, and incidents involving animated toys.

Future studies need to center on an evaluation of comics against some standard of quality and on their educational significance for attaining modern aims in literature, along the lines of Merrill's study (53) of American secular juvenile magazines.

Guides to Reading

Closely related to children's interests in comics, and inherent in the teaching of literature, is the problem of selecting books for pupils to read. Interest in this problem has been manifested by the number of booklists and book indexes that have appeared in the three-year period.

Outstanding booklists included the new edition of *The Right Book for the Right Child* (80), a list for the elementary grades, with grade placements determined by the Winnetka formula; *Books We Like* (22), a compilation of titles chosen and annotated by Illinois high-school pupils; Slater's *Books for Youth Who Dislike Reading* (68), a list for junior high schools, derived through actual use in remedial classes and validated by comparison with twenty-four of the best published lists; Colburn's *Books and Library Reading for Pupils of the Intermediate Grades* (11), representative of different types of literature and content adapted to the interests and abilities of pupils in the intermediate grades; and *Books to Enrich Teaching*, by Heller and White (26), who grouped around centers of interest books that give background for teachers and enrichment to classroom activities.

Published indexes of value to teachers of literature included Brewton's *Index to Children's Poetry* (8); Rue's *Subject Index to Books for the Intermediate Grades* (64); *Subject Index to Plays*, by a subcommittee of the American Library Association (9); and Shaw's annual cumulations (66, 67) to the *Essay and General Literature Index*.

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CHAPTER III

Language Development and Meaning

J. CONRAD SEEVERS

THREE HAS BEEN comparatively little actual research in this area during the period under investigation, although a great many articles have appeared. Partly because of the comparative lack of truly objective research and partly because of the intrinsic worth of a number of the reflective articles, many of the latter have been included in this summary.

How Children Arrive at Meaning

One group of articles and studies deals with the method by which children derive meanings. Behrens (3) reviewed a number of psychological definitions of meaning and studies of how meaning is derived, showing that it is the result of experiences and that specificity increases with experiences. Consequently, the larger the school experience the more complete is the derived meaning. Gunderson (24) pointed out similar implications with particular reference to young children and Millar (40) with reference to high-school children, while Hale (26) indicated the importance of experience in developing composition.

It is significant to note that Hampel (27), in reviewing a great many unpublished studies, found only five which dealt with meaning. These five in general show that meaning is the result of specific use and not best developed through perfunctory exercise; it is largely the result of maturity and experience.

Semmelmeyer (53) in a paper read to the Chicago Conference (22) suggested methods for promoting growth in interpretation of meaning in the primary grades. Leary (34) showed that a child's first words are concerned with immediate associations and objects apparent to the senses; that generalizations are more difficult, and abstractions such as loyalty and friendship introduce elusive factors quite difficult for children. Miss Leary, who provided some pertinent and useful suggestions for development, in a study which again is primarily concerned with reading, reported that children did not find it easy to detect elements which were remotely relevant to a given theme, nor were they capable of rejecting purely fanciful elements, thus showing that discrimination in reading has to be taught.

McKee (39) tested children concerning informational items contained in stenographic records of what teachers had said in the classroom immediately prior to the testing of the children. This study demonstrates clearly how necessary is care in what McKee calls "our instructional talking." For example, when a teacher said that cotton, at a certain period of our history, was planted on a narrow strip of land along the coast, different children derived a half dozen different meanings from this comparatively simple statement. Teachers should not assume that children

understand everything teachers say. Chrysler (6) also showed the importance of the language of instruction.

Gaskill's study (17) of 1,095 kindergarten children found "no clear-cut relationship between intelligence and facility in the use of language," indicating that other factors, especially experience, are operant. Gaskill did, however, find more facility and less clumsiness of expression among children in the upper fourth on intelligence than among those in the lower group.

These studies indicate in general that (a) meaning is not inevitably arrived at; (b) misunderstandings are likely unless great care is exercised; (c) precise teaching of meaning is desirable; (d) meaning is more difficult in proportion to the abstractness of the topic; (e) at least part of the difficulty may be the result of obscurity in the language of instruction.

Specific Areas of Instruction

Glicksberg (20) cited Fawcett's exposition of the nature of proof as it was elaborated in the *Thirteenth Yearbook* of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. He showed that for teachers of science and mathematics words must be given precise meanings and those precise meanings must be disassociated from emotional bias. Glicksberg also pointed out the danger of verbalistic explanations. Taylor (54), reviewing pertinent research studies, concluded that ability to generalize can be taught in connection with the social studies, and this ability to generalize is not closely related either to intelligence or to age. Such ability is extremely hard to test and is made apparent largely through the language used by the subject. Hence there is a danger of confusing verbal facility with actual generalization. The study indicates the relationship between clear use of language and clear thought. Grim (23) also showed that ability to interpret data is different from simple reading ability and that it involves a mature use of language.

Gabel (15), testing four hundred pupils in Grades VI, VIII, X, and XII, found that the indefiniteness of terms used in the social studies results in inadequate comprehension and retention. The implication is that unless children are required to use and are given practice in using precise language, inexact thinking is going to be the result. This conclusion is further substantiated by Bear and Odber (2), whose study indicated that the insight of students into the extent of their own vocabulary is often faulty. The student who is content with superficial dependence on context may grow little through reading; consequently direct training in vocabulary is needed and practice in exact usage is essential. Vosatka (57), after studying the vocabularies of high-school pupils, pointed out similar implications. High-school as well as elementary pupils frequently fail to distinguish clearly among the several meanings given the same word in the dictionary. This facility must be developed through teaching.

Prindle and others (46), after studying college students, showed that

seniors demonstrated little more factual knowledge of language than did freshmen. The study expressed the hope that the seniors had more functional knowledge. The significance of the study is that purely factual growth may or may not be related to growth in meaning and that the one should not be depended upon to produce the other. Salisbury (52) recommended emphasis upon thought rather than upon perfunctory correctness and upon synthesis as opposed to analysis in teaching college composition. She showed that without this synthetic approach composition may be comparatively barren of thought. Much the same implication is derived from the *Basic Aims for English Instruction* of the National Council (43), and from Ferebee's "Gaining Power through Writing" (14).

Phases of Language Development

Certain studies dealt with the relationship between language and mental development or maturity. Tripp, quoted by Hampel (27), showed that second-grade children almost invariably used only one meaning for each word employed. Dennis (8), after studying his own daughter, concluded that Piaget's description of a three-year-old child's mental level was accurate, but that at age six there might be much variation in development because of varied experiences. Fahey (11) pointed out the inadequacy of studies of children's questions. After a useful review of the literature on children's questions, Fahey questioned the validity of assuming that spontaneous questions are reliable measures either of interest or of critical thinking.

Worbois (59), in a study which contrasts the language development of children taught in one-room schools with that of children in consolidated schools, concluded that the latter, with their richer environment, tend to produce greater language development. Fahey and Corey (10) concluded that it was possible to infer the level of mental activity from classroom questions, but only with considerable difficulty. It is difficult to screen out other factors than intelligence. Correlations varied from .28 to .9, with a median correlation of .4. This is important because many people have assumed that children's thinking could be judged by their questions.

Long and Welch (36, 37) showed that children aged six to eight encounter more difficulty in reasoning with words than in reasoning with concrete materials. Heider and Heider (30), studying deaf children, pointed out the difficulties of acquiring language symbols. The young deaf children could communicate meanings belonging concretely to the immediate situation, but were handicapped in speaking about imaginary play, about objects which were not present, about the past, and about the future.

Timmins (55) showed that discussion was measurably improved by group discussion, and individuality and independence of judgment were not reduced thereby. Both thinking and language seemed enhanced by group discussion of social problems as compared with a purely individual approach.

McCaul (38) showed that pupils identify as unknown in reading material less than half the words they missed on vocabulary lists. Hartmann (29) contended that vocabulary tests are valid only in reference to the dictionaries on which they are based. Hartmann claimed that the mean recognition vocabulary of college seniors may be in excess of 200,000 words, a figure thought unbelievable. There is quite a difference between real understanding and mere recognition. These studies indicate the difficulty of measuring both vocabulary and meaning. Certainly a recognition test does not measure area or depth of meaning. Further light is thrown on this by Farley (12). Selecting fourteen words, he tested the hypothesis "that a word by itself is so ambiguous as to be practically devoid of meaning." The determinant is the context. Farley's experiment lends considerable credence to his hypothesis. Using a free association technique, he found that a given word elicited little uniformity of response. Association is not meaning but it is highly indicative of the specific nature of the meaning attached to a word by an individual at a given time and this is one of the factors which complicates the whole problem.

Semantics

Most of the articles in this field are philosophical or reflective. Walpole (60, 61) provided about as clear a description of the topic as is available. An exponent of Korzybski, in language much more clear than is usual among semanticists, he pointed out the impossibility of precise definition and the necessity of specific interpretation. He showed how meaning is dependent upon temporary or occasional determinants, and that both specific referents and generalizations are, consequently, dangerous. His contribution is extremely useful in pointing out verbalistic pitfalls and the dangers inherent in emotional loadings attaching themselves to words.

Richards (47, 48, 49, 50, 51) philosophically but clearly indicated the verbalistic dangers inherent in semantic shifts and suggested methods for avoiding them. It is impossible to summarize Walpole and Richards adequately in a short chapter. The reader must go to the originals. However the implications of both are tremendous. As our civilization and language have grown, we have complicated communication and we have increased our dependence upon symbols without being sure we use those symbols with clarity. We have forgotten that two persons may use precisely the same words with entirely different meanings even though they are speaking the same language (31, 32, 33). Not only our language usage, but our very concepts of science or government are involved in such considerations (41, 47). Gerr (41) says, "Everyday language has become, in effect, the collective mind and memory of society." Lee (35) analyzed the method of *Mein Kampf*, Aristotle, of Korzybski and showed how words can be used for a *rhetoric of power*; a *rhetoric of intellectual honesty*; a *rhetoric of understanding*. Barnard (1) showed how, especially in extemporaneous speaking and in panel discussions, figures of speech, analogies, and stereotypes may confuse thought. Parker (44) introduced similar thoughts.

One of the clearest expositions is that of Horn (31), who not only summarized the contributions of different schools and specializations in different areas of learning, but provided abundant illustrations of the importance for the teacher and pupil of clear use of language. Segel discussed research methods in semantics in the December 1942 REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH.

We need much more research in this field. We need studies which tell us what mental levels are necessary before children can do certain types of thinking. The studies reported are mostly philosophical and reflective. They are useful and challenging, but we need objective evidence.

General Articles

Most of the general articles show the relationship between clear thinking, good teaching, and mental hygiene. Harris (28) insisted that children's questions should be answered honestly, especially questions dealing with the war. Murray (42) pointed out the danger of verbalism, of reacting to words rather than to realities, of not having speech coincide with conviction. Broening (4) showed how teachers of English can contribute to the teaching of democracy by thinking through language symbols. Buckingham (5) and Glicksberg (19) asked that through the teaching of language we try to determine causes for loose thinking and overcome such difficulties. Plant (45), speaking as a psychiatrist, indicated that he is concerned not so much over the extent to which our schools are word centered, as he is over teachers' failures to recognize the limited meanings which children have for those words and the different meanings attached to words in different situations. We must remember, he says, that the language of emotional life is different from that of intellectual life. Failure to remember that produces disintegration of personality.

An interesting study is that of Eisenson, Souther, and Fisher (9) which, by use of nonsense syllables, indicated that certain sounds are inherently pleasant or unpleasant, probably because they are associated with words which themselves are pleasant or unpleasant in their associations. The study is tentative, but raises interesting questions. If sounds are inherently pleasant or unpleasant, what influence has that upon language? How significant are the kinesthetic factors in sound production? These and other questions are asked but not answered in this study.

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CHAPTER IV

Language and Higher Mental Processes

DONALD D. DURRELL

THE TEACHING of higher mental processes should be a part of the language arts program from the primary grades through the college. Most of the abilities in thinking can be integrated naturally into the program of reading and composition. When the various skills involved in reading and composition are finally analyzed and put into systematic sequences to improve ease of mastery, the result will be found to be a series of steps to improved thinking.

"Teaching to think" is an ancient but popular educational objective. Definite procedures by which thinking skills are developed, however, have remained in the state of conjecture and controversy. The belief in the mental discipline of various subjects persists, despite the adverse findings of psychologists. Current support will be found by some for the disciplinary value of classical and Romance languages, for mathematics, for logic and philosophy, for physical and biological sciences, and even for a mastery of the "one hundred best books." Another approach to the development of thinking ability is that of emphasis on various methods of teaching, such as the case method, the problem method, the project method, the activity curriculum, the integration of subjects, and the core curriculum. No subject or method, however, has as yet been shown to be conclusively superior to others in producing good thinking.

Nature of Thinking

Measurement and research in higher mental processes have been retarded by a failure to analyze the various aspects in thinking. Like "common sense" and "good judgment," "sound thinking" commonly means reaching the same conclusions as the speaker. The term has lost specific meaning and any discussion of it must be prefaced by definition. The complete act of thinking outlined by Dewey (3) might well be defined as the ability to plan. Symonds (12) suggested that Dewey's five steps were inadequate for many situations involving thinking, and through an experimental study involving group introspective techniques, he arrived at an analysis of various thought processes which he listed under nineteen headings. Symonds' list was as follows: learning the meaning of a word, term, or phrase; statement of relationships; formulating a question; classification; formulating a definition; providing illustrations or examples; selective recall; selection of basis of comparison; comparison on a single designated basis; evaluating recall; outlining; summarizing; generalizing; problem solving; explanation; application; making a decision; criticism; discussion. "Thinking" is a term which includes many types of mental

activity. The improvement of measurement and research in thinking will require further analysis and classification of various higher mental processes.

Judgments in regard to the quality of thinking are usually based on an analysis of verbal expression. A person is said to be a good thinker if in dealing with a group of seemingly miscellaneous facts that he has read or heard, he is able to do any of the following: to select items pertinent to a topic or problem; classify or arrange into discrete categories; subordinate minor to major ideas; arrange in a logical order; outline; summarize. It is also considered evidence of good thinking if while reading or listening, a person demonstrates any of the following associational abilities: finds examples and applications of the point being considered; suggests plans or activities allied to the topic; suggests additional pertinent topics for study or consideration; shows relationships to other fields; creates or invents new combinations of ideas. A further evidence of thinking is found in criticism or evaluation of ideas read or heard; recognizing special merit in ideas presented; evaluating suitability of presentation for a particular purpose; finding exceptions to the point being made; discovering overgeneralizations; suggesting limitations or precautions; discriminating facts from opinion; discovering bias or prejudice; analyzing motives or methods; evaluating evidence. These three processes—organization and subordination of ideas, supplementing and using ideas, criticizing and evaluating ideas—all respond to specific teaching.

Development of Thinking

The evidence for the merit of a planned program in organization and subordination of ideas was best shown by Salisbury (10). Using systematic lessons leading to mastery of classifying and organizing ideas, Salisbury found that in seventh-, ninth-, and twelfth-grade classes ten weeks of intensive instruction produced marked gains in many aspects of thought processes. The comparison of gains of experimental with matched control groups demonstrated that skill in outlining grows rapidly with direct teaching; that marked gains in reading test scores result; that the ability transfers to study of content subjects; and that thinking on problems not related to the school curriculum improves.

Possibilities in the direct teaching of supplementing and using ideas were shown by Marden (7). Direct instruction was given in suggesting classroom activities related to material being read, suggesting problems and topics for further study, giving illustrations for generalizations. Eight weeks of teaching these skills to seventh-grade pupils showed statistically significant gains in each of these associational skills as compared to matched control groups not given the instruction.

Specific teaching of various skills in criticizing and evaluating ideas was shown by Glaser (5) to have exceptional merit. Four twelfth-grade

classes were given ten weeks of instruction with units designed to improve abilities measured by the Watson-Glaser Tests of Critical Thinking, which consist of the following tests: survey of opinions, logical reasoning, inference, discrimination of arguments, evaluation of arguments. The gains made by the control classes were statistically superior to those made by matched control groups. Evidence was presented that the abilities learned were retained over a six months' period, and that the abilities transferred to study activities in the classroom. Glaser presented an excellent bibliography of research on higher mental processes.

Abilities in various phases of thinking are not assured by high scores on intelligence tests. Marden found that Kuhlmann-Anderson mental ages correlated .44 with ability to suggest activities related to reading, .26 with ability to find questions and topics for further study, and .30 with finding illustrations for generalizations. Glaser found a correlation of .46 between Otis Mental Ability Test scores and scores on the Watson-Glaser Tests of Critical Thinking. Skills in higher mental processes appear to be specific rather than a part of general intelligence as measured by present tests. It is interesting to note that these correlations are much lower than those customarily found between intelligence and achievement in various school subjects.

The language arts program which seeks to develop higher mental processes must first develop an experiential background on which thinking skills can be based. The use and transfer of thinking skills depend upon a knowledge of the concepts and vocabulary in the particular field in which thinking is to be done. A limited vocabulary impedes comprehension of things being heard or read, and therefore diminishes the possibility of any type of thinking about the subject. The person who possesses a wide vocabulary of abstract and generalized terms as well as concrete and specific words in many fields has more opportunities for application of the higher mental processes he has acquired. A large variety of vicarious and direct experiences will increase the possibilities for thinking.

A program for the development of higher mental processes might also give attention to the improvement of recall. Our present standard tests usually measure recall through the identification of the correct answer in a multiple-choice, matching, or true-false situation. Recall of this type is of a lower order than the unaided recall required by thinking processes. Availability for use in language situations demands that the fact, anecdote, or experience be spontaneously recalled in the thinking situation. Courtney (2) found that recall as measured by a multiple-choice test correlated only .28 with recall as measured by written reproduction, despite reliability coefficients of .89 and .94 on the measures used. His ninth-grade pupils were able to recall only half as much on written reproduction of material read as they could on multiple-choice recall of the same material. While limited recall may diminish thinking, good recall alone does not produce it. Tyler (14) showed that high scores on recall did not guarantee similar skill in higher mental processes.

Needed Research

The development and evaluation of methods, instructional materials, and measures of higher mental processes offer excellent opportunities for educational research. The task is stated well by Anderson (1) who says:

... teachers who wish to help pupils develop skill in critical thinking must determine the specific skills which are part of this general skill, must provide practice situations in class for developing these skills, must help students use these skills in life-like situations outside the classroom, and must seek evidence as to the extent to which these new abilities have been mastered and are being practiced by pupils.

The research field most immediately fruitful is probably that of the development of measures of higher mental processes. The development of such measures should lead to the identification of discrete thinking skills. Smith and Tyler (11), Taba (13), and Wrightstone (15) offer many suggestions for the construction of measures of various aspects of thinking. Possibilities in the measurement of outlining may be found in articles by McClusky and Dolch (8) and McDowell and Anderson (9). Gans's (4) technique for measurement of the pertinence of material deserves study. Several tests of the *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests in Study Habits and Skills* (6) are related to various aspects of higher mental processes. Measures in thinking skills in reading and composition have paid too little attention to thought processes. Reading measures are limited mainly to tests of vocabulary, speed, and paragraph comprehension. Composition scales lack objectivity and diagnostic value. Measures in English consist mainly of tests of language grammar skills and identification of characters and events in literature. The improvement of measures in the language arts field should engage the active efforts of research workers.

The development of instructional materials and methods for improving higher mental processes in language arts curriculum will require many years of zealous effort. A promising field for research is the development and evaluation of intensive teaching units on higher mental process skills. Workbooks might be developed for teaching classification, organization, and subordination of ideas, leading to outlining and summarizing; for supplementing and using ideas, raising questions, finding examples and applications, making plans for activities related to the topic; for various aspects of critical thinking such as discriminating fact from opinion, criticizing method of presentation or suitability for a particular purpose, and discovering overgeneralizations. Similar lessons should be planned to improve oral and written recall. The effectiveness of various types of instruction should be measured, and observations made on retention of the ability, transfer to various subjects, overlapping of abilities, adverse effects on other phases of language activities.

When research has found effective methods of teaching higher mental processes at various levels, the various problems of adjusting instruction to individual needs and the integration and motivation of language activities will be more easily met. The present confusion and ineffectiveness

in teaching language arts abilities is probably due in a large measure to the wide range of pupil abilities found in presentday classrooms. The difficulty may also rest upon our present inability to analyze the skills we are teaching, the lack of a systematic gradation of lessons to develop these skills, and insufficient attention to motivation.

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CHAPTER V

Foreign Language Instruction: General Review¹

JAMES B. THARP

OWING TO LIMITATIONS of both time and space the present overview represents about a fourth of the references which could well be included.

Bibliographies

The preceding review of foreign languages in this magazine was prepared by Harl R. Douglass and others, and appeared in the number for April 1940. Prior to that a review was made by the present writer and Katherine S. McDonald in the issue of February 1938.

By way of background we may also mention the two five-year volumes of abstracts of modern foreign language methodology prepared by the late Algernon Coleman and helpers, under the title *Analytical Bibliography*; the last volume, ending June 1937, was listed as reference 315 in the April 1940 REVIEW. Manuscript for the third volume, through June 1942, has been prepared and should be published late in 1943 if printing problems are not too serious. Robert H. Fife is the editor.

Unfortunately these volumes are expensive and come at long intervals. The summaries in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, the yearly selected bibliography in the *School Review*, meager as it is, and the department in *Hispania*, "Along the Foreign Language Frontier" (to be broadened soon with a new associate editor) serve their readers with fresher references.

The *Modern Language Journal*, serving the teachers of all languages, provides rather complete annotated bibliographies. Copy for the 1939 report, by Tharp and King (60), was used in manuscript form by the authors of the April 1940 summary for the REVIEW. When the *Modern Language Journal* changed its volume from the scholastic to the calendar year, Tharp (assisted by Harry J. Russell, Frederick J. Kramer, and others) (61) extended the coverage over a year and a half and prepared a topical index. The last bibliography, by Tharp and his volunteer staff (62), covered the school year ending June 1942; it is arranged topically in twenty categories, with an author's index.

Three other bibliographies of the recent period will prove useful. Kaulfers and Tharp (38) directed groups of graduate students who abstracted all the literature about the "general language course," foreign culture, exploratory and orientation courses that had appeared up to June 1941. In the current stress on the teaching of Spanish, the "penny

¹ This chapter constitutes an overview of the foreign language field and a general introduction to the three chapters which follow. All four of these chapters were prepared in an extremely short time owing to the fact that the contributors were not called upon until shortly before the magazine went to press. No time was available for cooperative planning or for checking to avoid possible duplication.—*Editor.*

press" compilation (lithoprinted) by the Romanic Language Department of Miami University (51) is valuable for lists of books, periodicals, materials, and professional readings. Of the many things available, at slight or no cost, from the Pan American Union or the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs in Washington, the compilation by Barry and Goetz (5) is a rich example; it contains references and teaching aids, readings on homes, dances, arts and crafts, and many other professional areas about Latin America.

Foreign Language Curriculum

Several manuals of teaching methods with curriculum emphases have appeared in recent years. A volume on methods had been written in 1923 by a pioneer in foreign language methodology in America; in 1940 Handschin (30), starting to revise his earlier book, found he had written a new one, as vigorous and forward-looking as the old. He had been a rabid, direct-oral methodist, but now he advocated a realistic emphasis on reading, by just as direct a method, withal. It is curious that the book formally ignores the existence of a widely sold, popular book on methods, written in 1931 and revised in 1937, from which, however, Handschin took some materials. The trio, Gullette, Keating, and Viens (25), wrote a *précis* of methods in 136 pages; like many "quickies," it packs a punch in small space.

For three years in California an experiment called the Stanford Language Arts Investigation dealt with curriculum revision. Kaulfers (35), one of the directors of the study, wrote a dynamic forward-looking book in which he presented a studied procedure of considerable value. (Roberts has written a similar book for English.) A composite volume of reports from the twenty-three schools participating in the Stanford experiment was edited by Kaulfers, Kefauver, and Roberts (36). This book describes correlating and integrating activities in foreign cultures and language study.

For some years a group of delegates from some twenty national teachers associations, called the National Commission of Cooperative Curriculum Planning, had been meeting and planning curriculum revision in the secondary schools. Jameson—with the cooperation of a committee: Purin, Lindquist, del Toro—(32) proposed a middle-of-the-road program of language study, based on the Educational Policies Commission's *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, with some variants on foreign cultures and language orientation.

Two books by educationists have important divisions on foreign language study. Reed (49), a psychologist, summarized research in terms of four important principles of learning; his program for courses of reading emphasis are presumably based on objective reasoning. He can see little future for the Latin course in high school. Billett (6) wrote from the experience of directing the National Survey of Secondary Education

in 1931-32. His program, much like Reed's, would have a preliminary exploration, then graded progression on the unit-plan for the many, of whom a few would become specialists.

General Education, the War, and the Curriculum

There have been many resolutions denouncing the American Youth Commission's pamphlet, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach* (3). Anguish was echoed by many serious-minded foreign language teachers who had read only the disturbing two paragraphs which queried the effectiveness of the short-term foreign language course at the stage of general education, centering at the ninth grade. The booklet proposed consideration of the general language course for many pupils at this level to acquire the aims usually pursued, leaving way to later specialization by those pupils capable of it who would need such skills in careers. No teacher who has read the preface and the pages preceding the criticizing portion, would disagree with the general program of activities designed for children whom the schools have somehow failed to serve to their best interests.

War has changed many things, so the above recommendations seem mild in view of the wartime program proposed for the schools by the National Education Association jointly with the American Association of School Administrators (43). All pupils were considered in two groups: due to enter armed forces and production lines or destined to prepare for post-war adult responsibilities. In the foreign languages, as well as in mathematics and science, careful selection of students by aptitude tests and tryout courses should pick those of high aptitude. These pupils would continue to high mastery in one or two languages, and no attempt would be made to build up big enrolments for mild, leisurely dabbling in pleasant language pursuits. War demands results, and immediately. The usual European languages were recommended, rarer languages—such as Russian and Chinese—to be taught as conditions would permit.

In these circumstances pressure groups leave the high-school principal without a friend. Tharp (64) tried to analyze enrolment trends, show the conflict among subjects—and among the various foreign languages themselves—for the precious pupil time, and to propose a compromise of valid foreign language courses for selected "amateurs" (some of whom would become skilled "artist" performers) and carefully planned survey (general language) courses for nonperforming "appreciators." Tanner's (59) general summary of the general language course and its program was given specific pattern by Coutant, Johnson and LaBrant (15) in a description of the activities in a ninth-grade general language course. This publication is but one of several similar reports that might be cited. Roehm (50) described a "general" course at the college level which was meeting a felt need. Meanwhile, Brenman (9) had been experimenting with a different kind of course in French, rich in social context and cul-

tural activities, with lessened linguistic emphasis. There has also been a series of semester orientation courses which emphasized cultural content with linguistic sacrifice, successful in a Pennsylvania school.

In time of global war and great-circle circumnavigation of air lanes, remote and rare languages crowd in to be learned. Bloomfield (7) has written a pamphlet to help a learner shift for himself, using an "informant," a native who would produce the language models which the learner would know how to analyze, record in writing, repeat orally, and assimilate.

Teacher Education and Certification

On the assumption that no system of education can be better than its teachers, Freeman (22) listed eight essentials for the good teacher: correct pronunciation; oral facility; mastery of grammar and syntax; mastery of vocabulary; knowledge of the foreign civilization and its literature; a living, personal method; a professional attitude; and a vital teaching personality. Owens (47) analyzed the advantages and flaws in state teacher codes of teacher certification. The standards of minimum credit hours of subject and educational courses in sixteen central states were compared in a chart to those of New York. Owens pleaded for co-ordination and common definition of terms. He found the minimum codes deplorably weak. In March 1940 some 3,726 persons took the National Teacher Examinations prepared by the Cooperative Test Service, subsidiary of the American Council on Education; 421 of these were in French, German, and Spanish. Spaulding (57) found the modern language candidates superior in subjects having a large verbal factor, not so good in nonverbal areas. French and German teachers were above the over-all average except in science and in professional information; Spanish teachers were somewhat below the general average.

Bowers (8) analyzed the training of the 3,280 teachers graduated by the forty-seven Ohio collegiate institutions in 1940—half by the six state universities. Each certificate carried one to five teaching fields (average 2.8). Of the 1,614 foreign language certificated neophytes, 867 got jobs, 126 did not want to teach, 360 got no jobs; 105 out-of-staters got jobs but 156 went jobless. How many of those who got jobs were to teach their major subjects is a different story. In view of the fact that the many small liberal arts colleges prepare more teachers than all other agencies combined, Cooper's account (14) of the self-examination of these schools in their teacher-training programs made one of the most important, if little publicized, curriculum projects of the period.

Enrolments in Foreign Languages

It is difficult to keep adequately informed on the status of enrolments and language offerings. There was a 1941 "census" of French teaching; also a general survey of Spanish teaching; regional studies (Catholic

women's colleges, private schools); state surveys (all languages in Nebraska, Michigan, and Washington; Spanish in Louisiana; German in Pennsylvania); and city surveys (French in Newark, New Jersey; general language in Columbus, Ohio; all languages in a Chicago school). Gutowski (27) sent questionnaires in September 1938 to the commissioners and directors of education in all the states to learn what and where languages were being taught, to compile the eligibility factors for modern language teachers, and to ascertain the conditions governing the introduction of a language into a school curriculum. A valuable chart gave all these data for each state. There was no over-all summary other than to reveal that French and Spanish were offered in all states and German in forty-one; but German was being replaced by Spanish and other languages. The popularity of French in Massachusetts was shown in that, of 257 schools, 252 taught French to 49,861 pupils; 18, 54, and 70 schools respectively enrolled 9,151 Italian, 8,193 Spanish, and 4,991 German pupils.

For several years the F. S. Crofts Company, publishers (16), has been collecting fall enrolment data in colleges and universities for the modern languages. The table below reflects the shift from French to Spanish, the German loss being less rapid. The teaching of German in the colleges is helped by the preservice training of inductees and the saner attitude in colleges toward language needs. There is no way of learning how many students have entered the armed forces, thus increasing the enrolment losses. The rush from French in the high schools may change when France is liberated.

CROFTS' AUTUMN ENROLMENT SUMMARIES IN COLLEGES
(showing percents of change from previous year)

Year	Schools Reporting	French		German		Spanish	
		Students	Change	Students	Change	Students	Change
1942	509	50,775	-23%	45,571	-10%	82,688	- 4%
1941	526	65,675	-23	50,392	-11	86,302	+27
1940	333*	85,890	-15	56,575	- 3	67,986	+21

* 105 schools reporting Spanish. Read as follows: 67,986 Spanish enrolment in 105 schools in 1940 was an increase of 21.5 percent over the 1939 enrolment in the same schools; and so on.

A pamphlet published by the *Modern Language Journal* on vocational opportunities for persons skilled in modern languages was revised in 1941 to show teaching possibilities; Penn (48) extended this information by a survey of openings in government and industry.

Values of Foreign Language Study

Morton-Finney (42), a Latin teacher in Indianapolis, attacked the perennial question of whether Latin study aids progress in French or Spanish. On 690 cases, using teachers' marks as evidence, she proved her case affirmatively to her satisfaction, thus controverting the "subjective opinion" of Benjamin Franklin, Lawrence S. Wilkins, and others, who preferred that modern languages precede an ancient language. Comment in *Correspondence* on this article called for more careful experiment to verify the precedence value in either direction, noting that such factors as selection among students who elect two languages, and prestudy learning habits might cause the results observed. Two psychologists, Hackman and Duel (28), studied 346 pupils in a Minnesota high school, giving tests a year apart in English vocabulary, usage, and spelling, then noting any gain in these skills that might possibly be due to concurrent foreign language study during the year. They found significant gain only in English usage. "The gain is greater to French and Spanish students than to German and Latin students. Foreign language study appears to have no bearing on gains in vocabulary and spelling." There was no gain whatever in spelling achievement during the last two years in high school! Here are some pet hopes blasted unless we can think of a quick answer!

Teaching Foreign Civilization and Culture

An analysis of the cultural content of five elementary French textbooks was made by Babbitt and Tharp (see the *French Review* of February 1937, and "Notes" of October 1937). Oliver (45) did the same thing for German. He also noted the responses of state courses of study in the area of the North Central Association to teaching civilization.

Kaulfers and Lembi (37) used cultural content on Mexico in giving aural orientation in Spanish to beginning or general language exploratory classes. There are similar models for other languages; a compilation of all these published units would make a valuable source of study material for ear training and vocabulary recognition. Miller (41) described her method of teaching French civilization to elementary college classes. Tests for this and other civilization units are published (see the later section on testing). Guradze (26) reported wide possibilities for integration of cultural information, particularly German, with other subject areas. A number of other sources are mentioned in the later section on recordings.

English as a Foreign Language

An important report by Coleman and King (12) to the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education described the situation in our southwestern states on the teaching of English to Spanish-speaking children. The courses of study and the existing textbooks were

analyzed. The teaching of English as a foreign language was a problem that caused the Committee to be enlarged in 1939 to include Fries of Michigan and Kandel of Columbia. Special bilingual tests have been constructed (see the later section on testing).

As a second report in the campaign of the Committee on Modern Languages concerning English as a foreign language, Fries (23) told the story of frequency counting and the grading of reading materials. He analyzed three English lists and presented six conclusions affecting the teaching and materials of English for foreign consumption. The bibliography is extremely valuable, and if English ever approaches a status as a world language, this book will be a major aid to authors of teaching materials. In this connection Eaton's word list (21) in English and three foreign languages should be noted.

Awakening Interest in Portuguese

It was only a question of time in these "good neighbor" days until somebody made a frequency count in Portuguese, and Shane (55) told how the honor came to tri-college Nashville. Six Brazilian scholars have been tallying 1,200,000 running words, mostly in the usual 10,000-word units, from lists of books chosen by Brazilian educators. There is no news yet about publication but it may be well for budding authors to await this statistical source before letting their textbooks blossom.

Ornstein (46) warned teachers of Portuguese of the pitfalls to be encountered: lack of grammars and readers; pronunciation—that of Portugal or of Brazil?; confusion with Spanish in forms and structure. Some books in Portuguese have tried to please both camps, but Brazil seems likely to win out.

Radio, Records, and Motion Pictures

Amner (4) experimented with short-wave radio sets in Spanish conversation courses. The problem of educational use of radio has not even been dented. Schueler (53) showed how radio programs could be recorded and the phonograph recordings sent out on loan or accumulated in school libraries. To Heimers' (31) compilations of teaching aids of all kinds (a list for French teachers came out in 1939 by the same publisher) must be added several special lists: Shane's (54) list of audio-visual equipment; Greene's (24) list of language films; Duran's (20) annotated selected list of recordings of popular and folk songs and dances of Latin America, from Argentina to Venezuela, with bibliography and index and record catalog numbers. A list of much wider scope—a *must* source book to people who teach with recordings—is that by Miles (40) where educational recordings for all the school subjects are listed and evaluated. There are conversation and pronunciation sets in French and Spanish and incidental speech records in these languages and Latin. The appraisals are composites of reviewers' opinions; the author evaluates the technical aspects.

Trosper (65), luckily close to the cinema production centers, was allowed to experiment with the Spanish script of Walt Disney's *Snow White* (*Blanca Nieve y los Siete Enanos*), which with end-vocabulary and stage directions was tried out in a second-year high-school class to great advantage. Pupils could follow the script as the Spanish-speaking film was screened; the lilt of songs like "Off to Work We Go" was inspiring. Unfortunately, copyright restrictions and theater contracts will thwart this procedure until investments are safeguarded. A Chicago high school, using commercial photographers, produced its own movie, entitled *Buenos Días, Carmelita*, now available for rent by schools from Baptista Films, Chicago. Croghan (17) described the project and evaluated the film for teaching purposes.

Tests for Foreign Language Instruction

Buros (10) brought out in 1940 a monumental list of appraised tests of all kinds in which the foreign languages have their section; this list supplemented earlier lists started in 1938. As if to make the picture complete, Smith (56) presented a checklist for selecting standardized objective tests in foreign languages. His claims for simplicity seem wide of the mark to the writer. Smith apparently had missed the annotation in earlier bibliographies to Ada Smith's thesis, *An Analysis and Evaluation of Objective Tests in French* (Ohio State University, 1939), in which a more effective checklist was presented.

At the request of the College Entrance Examination Board, Tharp (63) reviewed the statistical report of the examiners on the 1938 French Examination. He commended the careful preparations for scoring and the progress made in objectivity of measurement but found basis to recommend abandonment of the measurement of grammatical knowledge by English-to-French translation (grammar already being measured by more objective techniques) in order to permit testing in free composition and in aural comprehension.

Haley (29) reported an oral test on French pronunciation capable of objective and quantitative scoring. Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia published Miller's tests on French and on Spanish civilization (41), the only ones in print; Tharp has a French test in mimeograph form. All three sets were published in journals for free reproduction by teachers. Research has been under way on the creation of an extensive series of bilingual tests in equivalent Spanish and English forms; by the use of these tests the schools of Puerto Rico were surveyed on the teaching of English during the spring of 1943.

Vocabulary: Frequency Counts and Word Lists

A monumental vocabulary source book, some years in the making, was Eaton's (21) arrangement in four correlated columns of the first 6,000 words in the English, French, German, and Spanish frequency word-

counts. The words were grouped by first and second halves of frequency thousands. An index to each language referred the reader to section numbers where the concept was found for the four languages—a considerable contribution against the vexing lack of semantic separation of the language items in the original source lists. The book was issued by the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education for the International Auxiliary Language Association.

Keniston (34) started out to revise an earlier selected vocabulary list in Spanish, but changed the title when revisions grew too numerous. He listed 1,500 *basic* words plus 500 more *useful* words. His total of 3,635 items (of which 575 are idioms) compares with Tharp's *Basic French Vocabulary* of 3,340 items (of which 420 are idioms). There was a wave of special word lists: Nunn and Schweitzer's (44) Spanish war terms and a similar French list by the American Association of Teachers of French (2); Utley's (66) Mexican word list of 100 items, drawn from fourteen Mexican novels and three plays; DeLand's (18) list of baseball terms in Spanish, drawn from Spanish language sport columns; and Syring's (58) compilation of German words for American camera fans who might be studying German.

To the invaluable frequency counts of words and idioms in French, Spanish, German, and English, Diederich (19) added a count of Latin words and grammatical endings. Much more valid in coverage than the Lodge tally of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil, this count covered 202,158 running words in selections from over 200 authors in three anthologies. Diederich's list of 1,471 words contained 84 percent of the words met in his study; the College Entrance Examination Board's list of 1,791 words contained 81 percent. He found that eighteen "common endings" carry 90 percent of the burden of Latin grammar. His system of tabulation was ingenious: clerks copied the text word for word onto paper, mimeographed into small rectangles, which when cut apart could be filed alphabetically both as vocabulary and again according to inflectional endings. Reference to a Portuguese word list now in preparation was made earlier.

Textbooks: Analysis and Selection

In May 1941 a supplement to the *French Review*, organ of the American Association of Teachers of French (1), listed the French textbooks of twenty-odd publishers over a period of five years, classified and annotated. Intended for periodic appearance, it will now be held until the publication of French texts returns toward normality. Mazel (39) offered to language teachers a checklist for selecting grammars and readers, based on years of publishing experience and thousands of teachers' comments.

Cooper (13) tabulated the grammatical content of five elementary French textbooks and noted the concordance and sequence of items, comparing the result with the knowledge needed to succeed in certain stand-

ardized tests in grammar. (This study should be published after the appearance of the frequency count in French syntax—now in press and promised for early distribution—so that the items may be checked for frequency.) Jones (33) analyzed the vocabulary burden of the same five books, based on 2,000-word samplings of the running discourse of the initial lessons; she provided indexes of *density* (ratio of burden to known words), of *frequency*, and of *difficulty* (the latter a combination of the other two), and found the books adequate for first-year norms on standaridized vocabulary tests. (This study is being published in the *French Review*.) Taken with a study on the cultural content of the same books by Babbitt and Tharp, these three studies are valuable to authors and publishers as affording trends in textbook content.

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CHAPTER VI

The Teaching of Latin

B. L. ULLMAN

Enrolment

NO COMPREHENSIVE RECENT STATISTICS are available but it is still probably true, as it was in 1934, that there are more Latin students than ever before and that Latin is the leading foreign language in high school. A few detailed indications may not be without interest. In Washington, D. C., the percentage of increase of Latin pupils was higher than that of the high-school population every year between 1936 and 1940 (36). Flickinger (23) reported that between 1938 and 1939 there was little change in the total Latin enrolment in New York City schools but he failed to indicate that his report covered senior high schools only (21). It decreased a little in 1940 (22, 24). In New York City, contrary to the situation in the country as a whole, Latin is a low third after French and Spanish. In Kansas the situation is reversed (29): in 1939-40 there were over twice as many Latin pupils as those in all other languages combined. Bement (6) reported that in 1939-40, 49 percent of 533 accredited secondary schools in Michigan taught Latin only, 30 percent taught Latin and French. Here, as elsewhere, the usual course is one or two years.

Objectives

There has been no fundamental change in attitude since the Report of the Classical Investigation. Most teachers stress the importance of reading Latin as an immediate objective but minimize its value as an ultimate objective. The English and social-historical objectives are considered most important (27). Carr (10) applied the objectives of the Educational Policies Commission to Latin teaching. Anschutz (2) found that Michigan teachers of Latin rated self-realization highest among the objectives of Latin, human relationship second, civic responsibility third. Vaughan (51) had 191 Latin pupils check thirteen reasons for studying Latin and learned that its value for English was the most popular. The study of Wittmann and Kaulfers (56) showed that pupils who studied Latin only one year in high school are not likely to continue it in college, and that even of those who studied it four years only 7 percent continue it in college. It is obvious, therefore, that the high-school objectives should be based on the needs of those who will not take additional Latin in college.

Integration

Lawler (37) indicated briefly but in considerable detail how Latin can be correlated with other subjects. Integration with library work was discussed by Burton (8). Ullman (49) suggested an experiment with a core

curriculum consisting of one or more foreign languages, but while the plan has been elaborated present conditions have prevented its execution.

English Vocabulary and Its Attainment

The importance of a large and accurate English vocabulary has come to be recognized more and more widely, as has its relation to intelligence. Bagley (3) noted that, in the development of intelligence tests during the last thirty years, vocabulary tests had the highest correlation with the combined results of all single tests. Consequently two types of research in the Latin field which bear on this problem have more than usual interest: (a) etymological analyses of English word lists and methods for utilizing them; (b) studies which aim to determine the validity of what is usually claimed as the chief ultimate objective of Latin teaching, i.e., the improvement of English vocabulary.

Word lists—In the first group, Carr and others (13) analyzed the 20,000 words in Thorndike's *A Teacher's Word Book* and found that 49 percent were of Latin origin, ten of Greek. Oldfather (41) made a preliminary report of an analysis of all words that have come into the English language since 1800 and found that the classical elements were four times all others combined. White (54) reported the result of an examination of textbooks and journal articles to discover how much stress is placed on the teaching of Latin prefixes, chiefly useful for English vocabulary. Bell (5) examined nine elementary Latin textbooks to see what English derivatives are suggested in connection with the Latin words and checked them with Thorndike's *Word Book*; she found that in the various texts the percentage of words occurring in Thorndike's first ten thousand varied from 40 to 80. She also added some excellent observations on procedure. Kaulfers and others (30) listed 180 Latin words and phrases for use in Latin classes during the first week and based exercises on them. Laudable as the idea is, it puts the cart before the horse: these words should be taught through Latin, and most of them will not come up naturally until later in the course, after the pupil has acquired a knowledge of forms and vocabulary. The Missouri course of study (39) listed a number of activities intended to achieve the English objective.

Studies of validity—Boyer and Gordon (7) reported a decline in English abilities, especially vocabulary, in Philadelphia high schools between 1928 and 1938. They attributed this to a concomitant decline in the study of foreign languages during the period. As a check, they took two equated groups in their eighth semester in 1938; one of these was studying fourth-year Latin at the time, the other was not studying a foreign language (though some had previously studied one). They discovered that in an English vocabulary test the first group made a mean score of 57.4; the second one of 49.6. They considered this difference significant. Dean and Wall (18) made a study of tenth-grade pupils in Washington who had studied either Latin, French, or business for three years. When grouped

by I.Q.'s the language pupils were found to surpass the business students in all other subjects, especially English. The use of marks in English instead of tests vitiates the result somewhat; on the other hand, if English vocabulary tests had been used the results might have been more in line with other similar investigations. They also pointed out that of thirty reports adverse to foreign language study twenty-four were based on tests made before 1926, when conditions were different. Wagner (52) paired Latin and non-Latin pupils on the basis of the I.Q. and concluded from specially constructed tests that the former were superior in English vocabulary, spelling, and grammar. The number of pupils involved was too small (62 in one test, 44 in another) to make the results entirely convincing.

Parounagian (42) reported tests of 319 second-term pupils in Portland, Oregon, on 100 English words of Latin derivation. I.Q.'s of Latin and non-Latin pupils (some of whom were studying a modern language) were matched; the former made an average score of 79 as against 48 for the latter. The highest score in the nonlanguage group was 72 by a pupil with an I.Q. of 127; the highest in the non-Latin group was 83, made by a student of Spanish with an I.Q. of 129. Out of 156 Latin pupils, 81 made scores higher than this score of 83. No special teaching of derivation was done in the Latin classes (contrary to the best current practice). Some allowance must be made for the possibility that the English words were more or less hand-picked. Darbie (17) studied the English grades of 251 tenth-year pupils between June 1932 and 1939. On matching I.Q.'s he found that the groups which had studied Latin averaged five to eight points better in English than the non-Latin groups. The Latin group which had an I.Q. of 90.99 did better than the non-Latin of 120.29. Carr (9), using data that had been examined only in part by Thorndike and Ruger, found that ninth-grade Latin pupils during one year made a median gain of seven words in a test of fifty words (only half of them of Latin derivation) while non-Latin pupils made a gain of three. Correct answers on the Latin-derived words averaged 64 percent for the Latin pupils, 22 percent for the non-Latin pupils. Carroll (14) concluded from a test which he ran that the teaching of word derivation in Latin classes does not necessarily aid in enlarging English vocabularies but may do so if specific attention is paid to the derivation of words unfamiliar to students. A weakness in his study is that he compared non-Latin college students with those who had studied various amounts of Latin (from one semester up) in various schools.

Other Ultimate Objectives

In this field research studies are few. The study of the validity of some of the objectives is admittedly difficult but should be attempted. Morton-Finney (40) examined the marks of two groups of pupils studying French or Spanish: those who had and those who had not previously studied

Latin. She did not equate students but used a sampling method. She found that the ex-Latin students achieved higher grades in French and Spanish. Bagley (4) maintained that Held's study of the relation of psychological ratings of college freshmen and amount of Latin they had studied in high school proves that nature is not enough and that the study of Latin brings out latent powers. Studies of the validity of the social-historical objectives are particularly needed.

Changes in Content and Method

Trends in Latin teaching during the decade 1930-40 were studied by Handman (27), who examined textbooks, discussions in books and periodicals, and courses of study, and consulted teachers directly or through questionnaires. She found that content requirements have been reduced, much grammar has been postponed, and comprehension is emphasized. Textbooks have been greatly improved and made attractive.

Vocabulary

The pioneer word count of Lodge, improved by Hurlbut, still needs extension. Diederich (19) made a count based on over 200,000 words occurring in selections from 200 authors, medieval included. This is too broad for the Latin course as now organized; Diederich stated that his objective was to enable a mature person to follow the Latin of a Loeb edition (Latin on one side, English on the other). There are a number of misprints and errors. White (55) sampled 2,000,000 running words of Latin by counting every fifth line and covered 40 authors. The thesis was not available for examination. It should be remembered by those making further studies that it is not profitable to include in an investigation Latin authors or works which will not be read in a high-school course. Heller (28) took the Eaton list of 739 English words, based on Thorndike's first 1,000, and the French equivalents which Eaton gives, and added the corresponding Latin meanings. The list is of limited usefulness because of differences in aims of Latin teaching and modern language teaching. For experimental purposes the New York State list (50) was cut down and improved. Gay (25) found that the vocabulary density of the Argonauts is not much less than that of Caesar and that 41 percent of the different words are not in the New York list (50). This is of interest because the earlier New York syllabus had caused the Argonauts to become almost standard pre-Caesar reading in our schools. Ryan (45) selected the more common Christian names in the Thorndike list and added the Latin equivalents.

Form and Syntax

Strain (47), on the basis of his earlier studies in the frequency of inflectional endings, made a number of proposals for teaching. Some of

these are undoubtedly good but others must for one reason or another be rejected. Frequency of inflectional endings is not as good a criterion for teaching forms as word frequency is for teaching vocabulary. The study is, however, along the right line and the statistical part should be extended. Diederich (19) also made a count of endings and came to rather revolutionary conclusions about teaching methods.

Carr (11) made a count of examples of the subjunctive in a limited amount of text and on that basis urged a simplification of the teaching of that mood. A new syntax count, to supplant Byrne's, is needed.

Tests

Objective tests have become popular, chiefly for drilling and testing in a particular class. Teachers either devise their own tests or use workbooks. In these the range of materials to be tested has been extended. On the other hand, there has been a decline in the production of standardized tests. This is to be deplored, for new and improved tests are needed for research purposes, especially in some phases of Latin teaching. Handman (27) discovered that between 1930 and 1940 less progress was made in evaluation than in other fields. Probably the best all-round achievement tests are the Cooperative Latin Tests. Land's (34, 35) 1940 and 1941 forms, like their predecessors, tested reading, vocabulary, and grammar, but with some new techniques. King and Spaulding (32, 33) introduced a significant innovation in 1942, perhaps under the influence of workbooks: a "civilization" test was added. Gwynn (26) discussed types and trends.

Miscellaneous

No particular developments have taken place in junior high-school Latin. There has been much activity in general language (in which the Latin teacher is greatly interested) but research studies are lacking. Devices and programs for Latin classes and clubs have continued to grow in number and favor; it is sufficient to list two collections of material (1, 38).

Teacher testing—King (31) came to some interesting conclusions about the teachers and prospective teachers of Latin who took the 1940 National Teacher Examinations. Their average ability in all subjects was distinctly superior to the average of all the examinees; their median scaled scores on the common examination (English, general culture, and so forth) was 66 as against 62 for the group as a whole. They also knew their own subject better, establishing a median of 73 as against 70 for German teachers, 69 for French teachers, 68 for mathematics teachers, and so on. They were particularly good in English comprehension, expression, and literature, surpassing all the other groups, including the English teachers! King thought that Latin teachers, with their superior intellectual ability, should improve themselves in fields where their scores were not among

the highest. He also suggested that school authorities would do well to hire Latin teachers who can teach other subjects rather than teachers of other subjects who can take a class or two in Latin.

College Latin

Snowden (46) examined college catalogs to determine to what extent teachers of the classics are offering courses which aim to build up English vocabulary; he found a distinct trend in this direction. Caskey (15) studied college catalogs and visited colleges in order to learn to what extent Greek and Latin literature is taught in translation. Ullman (48) pointed out the need for acquainting college students with ancient literature and civilization in one way or another and mentioned types of courses being offered. Lord's extensive survey has not been published; it is to be used in organizing courses at Oberlin.

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CHAPTER VII

German Language Teaching

HELENA M. GAMER

General: Books and Reports

THE MOST NOTABLE single contribution in the field of German methodology within the last few years is a book by Hagboldt (17) on the teaching of German. After a sketch of the main changes in the teaching of languages from ancient times to the present, Hagboldt summarizes "The Foreign Language Study," discusses (and in the main agrees with) the Coleman Report, and postulates the following: we must obtain better results, particularly in one- and two-year courses; we must strive for an attainable aim, that of a reading ability within limits; we must utilize results of word, idiom, syntax counts, employ *realia* freely, and apply placement tests and objective measurements. "In brief courses our salvation lies in being much less ambitious concerning speaking and writing, and in being much more effective in concentrating our efforts on the passive phases of our subject, namely aural comprehension and reading" (17:33). Along these lines Hagboldt exemplified his theories persuasively and concretely, with many practical examples, hints, tricks of trade, and bibliographical references for further study. Hagboldt's attainments in practice and theory and his wide influence on textbook making and teaching in foreign languages make his book important, all the more so since there has been no book on the teaching of German for many years.

Although the Coleman Report has aroused a good deal of not unsound criticism, the main point of it, the emphasis on reading, has been generally accepted today by those who make textbooks and write articles on methodology. This emphasis on reading which derives from the Modern Foreign Language Study is seen in studies by Cope (9); Koch (28) who complained that teachers have not yet caught up with the adopted shift to reading, hence need some instruction in how to teach reading; Louis (30) who suggested methods for "streamlining" instruction in a three-year course; Basilius (3) whose concern was that the reading method be continued in the second year along the path that was begun in the first, and suggested how this can be done; and Hess (20) who is concerned for the third year.

Several studies on German teaching in certain sections of the country have been made. Hoffman (21) reported on Louisiana; Wittman (49) on Pennsylvania (staff, members, enrolment, language requirements, methods, textbooks); and Vail (47) showed by statistics that foreign language instruction is badly neglected in the state of Washington.

Current Suggestions and Recommendations

Suggestions for the improvement of textbooks were made by Bell (4) who advised the use of I. P. A. symbols instead of accents for primary and secondary word-stress in vocabularies, and Atkins (2) who pointed out numerous errors, obscurities, irrelevancies in current editions. Elmquist (11) and Morgan (34) have also offered suggestions.

Among the many timely demands that foreign languages be considered a pertinent part of American education may be mentioned two articles on the place of German: one by Guradze (16), the other by Silz (40). A particularly interesting experiment was reported by Guradze (15). A successful cooperative undergraduate course in criticism was conducted, on the invitation of the English department, and carried out with the help of instructors in German, French, and music. The German texts used certain critical chapters by Lessing, Schiller, Hebbel, Nietzsche, Spengler, Wierchert.

One current emphasis is on German for scientific purposes. Irving (23) advised students who wish to take up biological studies in college to get their German and French in high school. Jordan (24) obtained his text for the class in Scientific German from a science department at the New Jersey College for Women for which his students translated certain needed materials. Steckelberg (42) checked the vocabularies of ten science readers against Purin's *Standard German Vocabulary* and the *Minimum Standard Vocabulary* of the AATG; she concluded that there is not much difference between the basic vocabularies of scientific and of nonscientific reading.

The War and German Teaching

The need for German in the war is made clear in a letter which Professor Twaddell of the University of Wisconsin received from the War Department (41). It includes a brief list of reading material for those who wish to become informed on military terms and subjectmatter. Scherer (38) predicted new opportunities and demands for German in the war and in the postwar period, called attention to the increase in enrolment at the U. S. Military and the U. S. Naval Academies (100 and 113 percents respectively), and the lack of sharp decreases in German elsewhere. He pointed out that instruction in German civilization is useful for the postwar period, but that the immediate need is for scientific, military, and conversational German. Among others, Vowles (48) gave reasons for studying German now; Timpson (46) reported an increase of interest in German studies and German scholarly publications in England. Hofrichter (22) told of an experiment conducted at Vassar with a so-called "condensed course" in German, lasting one semester. It was restricted to good students, mostly seniors, who spent only five hours a week on German instead of the usual ten. The grammar was explained in English; there followed

short German drills; reciting in chorus was considered important; and there was some written work. The course was intended primarily for upper-classmen who wished to go on with graduate work. Stroebe (43) reported a specially arranged course, carrying no credit, to help prepare students for government service as translators; she stressed the need for intensification, to do things better, rather than acceleration to save time.

Vocabulary

What constitutes an "active" word list? What should be the size and the nature of it? Opinions so far have differed widely; suggested numbers have fluctuated between 300 and 26,000 words. Only a few attempts have been made to set up such a list. Magyar (31) compared the vocabularies which had been made up by Berlitz (a first attempt of about 800 words for purposes of traveling), Wendt, and by Schinnerer. He considered all of them moderately useful, none anything like complete. Since most of their words are also in Morgan's *Minimum Standard German Vocabulary*, Magyar proposed that Morgan's list serve for the teaching of an "active" word list as well as it has for so many other purposes. Wooley (50) collected much material from various grammars for a "passive" vocabulary. This he tabulated conveniently according to the derivation and composition of nouns and adjectives, choosing only frequent words. He did not indicate how these lists should be put to use. Morgan (32) explained the difference between "basic" and "derivative" as used in his MSGV and in another article (33) discussed the cognates in connection with the same work. Koenig (29) made an interesting collection of recent German loan words in current usage, for example, *Blitz*, *Lebensraum*, *Anschluss*, *Gleichschaltung*, *Machtpolitik*, *Gau*, *Bund*. Syring (44) listed about 160 technical expressions connected with photography, with their German equivalents.

Reading

Goodloe and Forsyth (14) stated their thesis that "the student beginning to read German should be impressed with the primary importance of the position and agreement of the inflected verb and whatever accompanies it, in question-and-answer work with the primary importance of the question itself and all it provides for the answer-form." They gave general and specific directions for acquiring three skills: (a) the technique of reading German; (b) the technique of question-and-answer; (c) the technique of composition. Bergel (34) asserted there should be some speaking and writing in reading courses and indicated how this is to be done. Koch (27) is in favor of more "intelligent training" in reading courses; for example, before reading Lessing's *Emilia Galotti* in German there should be an assignment (in English) and a discussion of Manzoni's *I Promessi Sposi* which is similar in setting and plot.

Grammar

In the province of grammar Mueller (36) discussed the position of the reflexive pronoun; Morgan (35) contributed frequency counts; Boesche (7) continued a discussion started by Feise on the troublesome "es gibt" idiom. Elmquist (11) made a much needed plea to teachers and textbook makers to simplify the teaching of German noun inflection: avoid elaborate classifications and the many confusing rules, teach by type instead. Morgan (34) called the present system of teaching the subjunctive in most of the textbooks unsound; e.g., "wäre" is not a past subjunctive; there is no such thing as a "conditional mode." He favored Prokosch's presentation of the subjunctive, gave a condensation of it, and listed textbooks in which the subjunctive is, in his opinion, correctly handled. With this should be read Boesche's answer (6) in which he challenges some of Morgan's and Prokosch's "sweeping" statements on historical grounds.

Composition

Appelt (1) laid out a pattern for teaching German composition and conversation in college classes by which students may be trained in the type of composition implied by the title. He also listed and discussed reference books and textbooks.

Aural and Oral Work

A passive aural orientation period was recommended by Kaulfers and Moore (25) to precede the active oral exercises. They offered material for such orientation. Gates (13) called attention to the value of aural practice in reporting the astounding success which Rudolf Binding had in learning Italian entirely by the aural method. Funke (12) urged the use of choral speaking not as a new device but as a most valuable one which has been too much neglected. He told how to proceed and recommended suitable material.

Recordings

Relatively little material has recently appeared in the field of German to promote instruction by means of records. A helpful and inexpensive practical guide to German "sentence melody" (*Satzmelodie*) together with speech records made by Mrs. Held and Mr. Maass was published by Held (18). This is intended to help Americans learn the native German pitch and rhythm. Some French and English phrases are included for comparison with the German manner of speaking. Schueler (39) has recordings in English of German folk scenes which are available on records. Brickman (8) discussed the possibilities of aiding language instruction by the use of films, particularly the Juer-Marbach method of teaching with animated cartoons. The examples are chiefly for German students; there are bibliographical references.

Cultural Material

Thiele (45) provided many examples and a mine of information to show how German idioms can convey information on German culture. Oliver (37) has culled some *Kultatkunde* out of grammars and other textbooks.

Tests

Klemm (26) advocated placement tests to help students and improve classes. As a reply to recent criticism Hespelt (19) attempted to justify the employment of Coöperative Tests within the limits originally set up for them: they cannot test accent, speaking, writing ability; they can test the ability to read (silently), to recognize grammatical principles, to give synonyms. Their aim is absolute objectivity, and the multiple choice test is objective. Heyse Dummer (10) worked out a vocabulary test, embodying the principles of recognition and recall, on *Das Geheimnisvolle Dorf; Himmel, meine Schuhe; L'Arrabbiata*. Out of 125 words the students must choose 100, indicate in which of the four texts the words are to be found. Time: one hour.

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CHAPTER VIII

Teaching the Romance Languages: French, Spanish, Italian

OTTO F. BOND, with the assistance of JAMES BABCOCK, HILDA NORMAN,
and LAWRENCE ANDRUS

THE TRIENNium ending December 1942 showed no lessening in the amount of reportage of opinion and investigation in foreign language teaching, if the 905 items listed by Tharp (140, 141, 142) in his annual bibliographies are a fair index. A certain truculence and a defensive attitude mark the majority of these reports, partly because the major concern of foreign language teachers during this period was with the threat to the place of their subjectmatter in the common school curriculum. They were deeply concerned with proposed reorganizations of secondary-school work, shifts in general educational trends, the effects and needs of war, and new or resurgent emphases in our social structure.

This concern explains largely also their preoccupation with ways and means of adapting language instruction to external conditions, through curriculum integration, socialization, personalized teaching, the enrichment of course content, the stimulation of pupil interest, and their persistent searching and defense of the values of foreign language study. It was a period of marked unrest.

Enrolments and Trends

Throughout the country, French showed a sharp decline in enrolment; Spanish, a sharp rise. Both loss and gain reflected international conditions and political considerations, as well as more orderly educational trends. Freeman (51), commenting on the Crofts 1940 poll, interpreted the 15 percent decrease in French and the 21 percent rise in Spanish as definitely due to war conditions. The Crofts (29) 1941 poll of 526 colleges and universities showed a further loss of 23 percent for French and an added gain of 27 percent for Spanish. Total college enrolments were reported as down from 5 to 20 percent (averaging 10 percent), making difficult an exact comparison. Wagoner (154) would check the demoralizing influence of this pendulum swing by means of a planned distribution of information to the language electorate. Tharp (139), reflecting on the four-language balance in 1917, the drop in German and the rise in Spanish in 1920, the return of Spanish to prewar size in 1936 with French holding the 1920 Spanish level to 1940, then the French slump in 1940, and the mushrooming of Spanish again in 1941, concluded that general language was the compromise answer for rural secondary schools. Further evidence of the downward trend in French enrolments appeared in McCreary and Tharp's analysis (98) of 1,730 teacher questionnaires in the 1941 Census, in which they reported that out of 135

colleges, 5 indicated no change, 38 an increase, and 92 a decrease; of 234 secondary schools, 45 indicated no change, 149 an increase, and 60 a decrease. Apparently the decline had already set in at both educational levels. For Nebraska secondary schools, Altman (3) noted that foreign languages dropped from 56 percent to 22 percent of the total school population in two decades (1919-1939), in spite of the total school population having trebled during that period. He also pointed out the growth of social studies from 65 percent to 77 percent, and of the practical arts from 53 percent to 96 percent.

Similarly Vail (147) indicated the failure of foreign language enrolment in the state of Washington to keep pace with the growth in total school population, secondary schools and colleges included. He placed the major blame on the high schools and junior colleges in the 600-1,000 population bracket. Speaking for 85 percent of the 624 accredited secondary schools in the state of Michigan, Bement (15) stated that in the five-year period 1933-38, although the school population increased 21.6 percent and graduates increased by 33 percent, the enrolment in foreign languages decreased 13.8 percent. Jessen, in the U. S. Office of Education report on high-school enrolments for 1937-38 (146), computed the ratio of high-school graduates to continuants in college as 1 to 3.4, and called attention to the steady decrease since 1900 in the percentage of high-school graduates entering college. Obviously, this national trend has some bearing upon the foreign language fluctuations and conditions noted above. Doyle (41) named the neglect of liberal studies because of our preoccupation with war as one of the two present dangers to foreign language study. A year later (42) he found that neglect tempered somewhat by an increasing interest in "intensive" language courses for military and civilian use, and cited the programs of the Washington Inter-American Training Center, the American Council of Learned Societies, the Armed Forces Institute, the Army and Navy Spanish Project, and so forth.

Place in the Curriculum

Nowhere in the field of foreign language teaching is there a wider range of practice and opinion than is found in regard to the place of foreign languages in the secondary-school curriculum. Bement (15) made a detailed analysis of the situation in Michigan, classifying his data according to one-, two-, and three-language schools. Of the one-language accredited schools (55 percent), French was offered by 5 percent, mainly in two-year sequences, and more often in Grades X to XII. Of the two-language schools (33 percent), the offerings were almost wholly Latin and French, tending toward equal two-year sequences in the larger schools; in approximately half of the cases Latin was offered in Grades IX and X, followed by French in Grades XI and XII. The three-language schools (5 percent) offered Latin, French, and German or Spanish, averaged 188 graduates, and followed about the same patterns as the two-language

group. The largest schools were in the four-language group. Only one of these offered four years of each language. The 33 percent of the accredited schools offering two languages had a graduate average double that of the 55 percent offering only one language; in both groups, the courses had the same time allotment, leaving only the element of choice. Nearly all so placed the sequences as to allow no time gap. Bement proposed a dual curriculum for (a) average high schools and (b) above-average high schools, and suggested four possible language patterns. He concluded that any contemplated curriculum change should be predicated on school size.

Gaumnitz (55) viewed the two-year foreign language course with disfavor, claiming that it did not provide mastery in either reading or speaking for the one out of three graduates of the 1,238 rural high schools under analysis. (This error in expecting "mastery" in a two-year course ran through many of the curriculum discussions.) In a second article, Bement (14) presented the case for the universities and argued for a three-year secondary-school sequence in a given language, all sequences to end in the twelfth grade. His data and conclusions were based on 1,046 freshmen entering the University of Michigan's liberal arts college in 1938, and constitute an interesting and valuable study on language continuation and the effect of preparation patterns, of which some 86 different types were presented in the survey. He concluded (a) that the only beneficial time gap was between a three-year sequence in Latin and foreign language continuation in college, (b) that two high-school years in a language slightly overbalanced one college year because of the added time exposure, (c) that not less than three years in any one language was desirable, and (d) that the three-year sequence should end in the twelfth grade. The Secondary Education Board (127), after its study of the time allotment problem, proposed a twelve-point program for a conference of language educators of the country.

Tharp (139) recommended a general language course for "non-performers," limited-objective courses for "amateurs," and "all the artists can take," after studying the problem of 1,200 rural Ohio schools. In the private-school area, de Lancey (32) found preparation patterns ranging from kindergarten to Grades XI-XII, with 52 percent beginning a language below the seventh grade. One suspects a strong Louisiana sampling in his survey; he does not give the geographical range of the 33 questionnaires analyzed. Again, Bement (16) tried to evaluate French curriculum patterns by means of achievement tests administered to first- and third-semester college continuants at the University of Michigan. He decided (a) that a three-year sequence in a single foreign language was preferable, (b) that a general language course might well serve as the first year of such a sequence, and (c) that for those who begin French in college, quantity rather than kind or identity determines the value of previous language experience.

The trend of opinion of the professional educators was toward less rather than more foreign language study in the common school curriculum. Graham (63) and his committee blocked out the curriculum into four areas: reading, labor, social studies, and personal problems, leaving the teaching of languages in a nebulous haze tinged with the mastery concept and suggestive of general language. The vocal section of the language teaching profession picked up the gauntlet. Doyle (38) called for a "changed attitude toward foreign language study in the United States," asked for a six-year program in which to do a decent job, and (42) greeted Reeves' suggested fifth area for the common school curriculum (international relations) as a belated though limited recognition of language values. Morrison (105) thought that the social utility of any other language than the vernacular in the common school was small indeed, and that foreign languages being a "special interest," should be relegated to private teaching, colleges, and universities. He pointed out that nearly half of the child's program in general education (normally seven course-years out of a total of sixteen course-years) is spent in the study of Latin and French or another modern foreign language, has negligible results in the ability either to read or to speak the language, excludes thereby "the all-important social sciences and the foundations of modern machine culture," and renders the pupils unlikely to become "intelligent and useful members of the community, save by the chance that some other influence than the school has operated in that direction." Not all educators thought alike, however. Brumbaugh (22), reporting on curriculum organization in 276 higher institutions in the North Central Association, stated that French and German were offered by 90 percent of the schools represented, that French occupied third rank, with English first and mathematics second, and that three-fourths of the administrators would prescribe foreign languages in a program of general education. It remained for a linguist to take foreign language learning entirely out of the classroom; Bloomfield (19) would place the acquisition of a less common foreign language in the hands of the pupil and an efficient native informant, and urged a clean pedagogical slate.

Aims and Values

The ten *Language Leaflets* edited by Doyle (40) covered all the old (and some new) arguments for the study of foreign languages in the schools. They included the development of the international mind (cf. 156), international business relations, values to science, practical considerations, and humanistic growth. The tenth leaflet combatted the fallacy of the argument of literature-in-translation. Welles (156) appealed for more language study, outlining its service in foreign affairs and in broadening the international understanding of our citizens. Zeydel's tract (161) repeated the general arguments for language study for public information. Pierson (118), as an officer of the Department of State, summarized

the direct and indirect uses of foreign languages in and outside of the government, and provided a useful bibliography. Jameson (78) gave the foreign language teachers' replies (63), indicating a curriculum in general language, survey courses in culture, and courses in French, Spanish, and German language and literature, all in harmony with the basic aims and principles of the Educational Policies Commission. Carter (24) closed his discussion of seven major objectives for language study in the liberal arts college (proficiency in written and oral English, understanding of the meaning of the social sciences, understanding of science and scientific method, appreciation of esthetic values, appreciation of idealistic and ethical values, interpretation of professional and vocational values in the college program, and a working reading knowledge of a foreign language) with the bold statement that "aside from English, few departments, in fact, occupy such a pivotal and strategic position if viewed in their relationship to the whole curriculum."

Morris (104) stressed the contribution of foreign language study to the development of the individual in his thinking, and insisted that the question was not one of humanities versus the social sciences, but one of "remaining true to fundamental principles of humanistic thought." Kaulfers (83) argued that the acceptance of a basis of insights needed for "effective living in modern society and for the development of balanced personalities," in lieu of the traditional basis of form, would bring the language arts into line with the principles of educational unification. Rice (121) proposed integration with the work of other departments; Shoemaker (129) found superior social values inherent in the study of Spanish language and literature; Aldrich (2) thought that the value of language study in the liberal arts program was determined by its relation to the unifying principle (cf. 82) of the program, which he proceeded to define (with somewhat bewildering complexity) as the liberation of the mind from various and sundry bonds, including space, time, symbols, and self. Transfer values were supported by Washburn (155), and were experimentally substantiated for English usage (but *not* in vocabulary or spelling) by psychologists Hackman and Duel (68).

Blayne and Kaulfers (18) urged the high school to fit the language course to the pupil's needs, and not to college entrance examinations, since only three out of a beginning high-school class of thirty-five were likely to continue the same language in college. On the other hand, Irving (76) would put language training (French and German) for biological science students down into the high school, where the learning "is easier and more pleasurable." Dean Klein (89) queried the validity of assuming that every student had a "social interest," and questioned whether a language program, once socialized and personalized, could be justified when only literary interests were provided beyond the fourth quarter (third semester?). For historian Wolf (159) the first step to the understanding of other peoples is to cross the linguistic barriers; he would break down

American isolationism in the postwar era by more teaching of foreign languages (including reading, writing, and speaking). Hauch (72) detailed the neuro-physiological argument for language study. Wittman (158) agreed with Blayne and Kaulfers (18) that the high-school course should be constructed primarily for noncontinuants, with differentiated treatment for college-preparatory pupils (cf. also 139). Reinsch (120) summarized the opinions of a foreign language symposium at the 1942 meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in San Francisco. A canvass of 410 adults, from three to five years out of high school, in a Chicago community was made by Moore (102), who had previously canvassed 600 high-school pupils in the community (103). She found that 36 percent of the adults claimed a better understanding of foreign countries; enrichment of vocabulary and the more effective use of English rated second and third place in value, respectively (cf. 155). Altman (4) revealed an interesting facet of this question of foreign language values in her analysis of some 9,000 articles written by over 400 administrators in the North Central Association during a fifteen-year period: 60 percent of the nonlanguage teachers favored content objectives, but the language teachers favored mastery. The author was led therefore to recommend content for the first-year objective, and mastery for continuants.

Methods and Practices

One of the most valuable and comprehensive works on modern language methodology went into a second and completely rewritten edition, catching up with current thought and the research of the last twenty years. The reviewer refers to Handschin's (70) standard reference work for the language teacher. A briefer manual with selected bibliographies prepared by Gullette, Keating, and Viens (66), covered the usual topics briskly and effectively. Coleman and King (26) contributed a final chapter on the pedagogical conclusions of value to secondary-school teachers to be formulated from available research previous to 1939. In his presentation of the unit method, Billet (17) discussed the status of foreign languages in the secondary school, the basis for enrolment, some outcomes of modern language teaching, and certain fallacies. He advocated a preliminary exploration course by the English department, followed by reading courses. Palmer (113), after an excursion into the history of foreign language teaching since 1880, denied frequency counts, listed many foreign language problems needing investigation, and fell back upon the doctrines of de Saussure, calling for a new reform movement. Bloomfield's recommendations for the intensive study of a foreign language, referred to above (19), were quite in line with Palmer's. Stock (134) outlined arguments and procedures, with examples, for a French course with the reading approach having the threefold aim of reading, the under-

standing of language structure, and appreciation and acquaintance with foreign culture.

On the progressive education side, Kaulfers (82) formulated the basic philosophy underlying the Stanford Language Arts Investigation, financed for 1937-1940 by the General Education Board, in a volume exposing an "organic conception of language" and detailing minutely a new-type course in which "the language abilities are developed from the start in and through content and activities rich in potential and concomitant outcomes." It was a return to the fourfold aim (and therefore anti-Coleman), but through the differentiated workshop, tending away from formalism toward a life-centered program, the socialization of the language class, the personalization of instruction, and a highly elastic time allotment in the curriculum. In a companion volume, Kaulfers, Kefauver, and Roberts (84) edited a collection of twenty reports by teachers of foreign languages, social studies, and English, who had participated in the investigation. The coverage includes a statement of general objectives and educational philosophy, seven reports of cooperatively conducted new-type programs, nine reports on cultural programs in the foreign languages, three reports on cultural programs in English, two articles on the creative role of language arts teachers, and illustrative materials for class study (specimen dramatizations, topical outlines, an opinion survey, a puppet show scenario, a list of foreign literature in translation, and so forth). The authors claimed as demonstrable results of the success of the experiment (a) a 100 to 300 percent increase in language continuation beyond the required two years; (b) a marked reduction of discontinuants; (c) the maintenance of a high degree of interests; (d) a clear gain over the control sections in race-prejudice scale ratings; (e) a considerable gain in cultural content; (f) no sacrifice in Cooperative Test ratings in reading, vocabulary, and grammar; (g) the conviction of the teachers (in the absence of adequate oral tests) of marked betterment in the pupil's use of language; and (h) the positive evidence of marked improvement in teacher attitudes toward pupils and subjectmatter. In the face of the overwhelming enthusiasm of the twenty authors and their three sponsors, it is difficult to query the opinions of the other 128 teachers and administrators involved in the investigation and not directly represented in this account.

An Eastern echo sounded in Brenman's experiment (21) with 120 Newark (New Jersey) high-school French students. Cultural values received particular attention in Spanish as implementation of the good neighbor policy. Kaulfers and Lembi (87) proposed a cultural unit on Mexico for use in the first week of beginning Spanish; Hochstein (74) offered a complete topical outline of ten study units on Latin America, with a full bibliography; Forkner and Platt (50) described and evaluated a cooperative project in Spanish and history; Bailbache (12) described some California projects in correlating Spanish with social studies, commercial subjects, music, and English; Mays (96) stated the

progress to date in the development of Spanish language instruction in the grades, indicating the difficulties encountered, and listing concrete suggestions. A phase of "Spanish and the War," that of the intensive courses organized at the training centers for the instruction of army and navy officers and other government personnel, was described by Doyle and Aguilera (43). Ungria (144) contributed a timely and helpful article on content and procedure in both elementary and advanced courses in commercial Spanish, with a bibliography on business textbooks and periodicals in Spanish published in the United States.

Course of Study

The course of study for foreign languages, drawn up by Anderson and Blais (6) for the state of Oregon, gave a full account of the purposes and aims of instruction, methods, content, evaluation procedures, and state-adopted texts, supplemented by lists of source materials, reference works, and readers for three-year courses. In briefer form, Kroeger (90) stated the citywide plans for the reorganization of modern language instruction in Philadelphia. A noticeable departure was the postponement of formal grammar until the senior high school. Bond (20) outlined a college two-year French sequence with the reading objective, stating the general principles and mechanics of the sequence and indicating day-by-day programs covering assignments, classroom and teacher activities, and testing, as in effect at the University of Chicago.

Grammar

Vittorini charted the uses of the past tenses of the indicative for French, Italian, and Spanish (150), and the uses of prepositions before the infinitive (151). In the case of the latter, the writer considered that patient repetition might lead to proper use. The topical content and spread of five common elementary French grammars were the subject of investigation by Cooper (27); he found that fourteen items received but one listing, and that of a total of eighty-eight topics only thirty-six were common to all five books. There was little uniformity in the sequential order of the topics.

Reading

Russell (122) described a controlled experiment at Miami University (Ohio) in the teaching of graded Spanish reading, and presented evidence to show that students taught by means of a direct reading approach, and with graded materials, learn to read more efficiently and sooner than those taught by other methods and using ungraded materials. Churchman (25) described in detail a first-year college French course with reading emphasis at Clark University (Massachusetts), pointing out various implications for the two-year high-school course, and giving standardized test results. He suggested that the reading course might pro-

vide the prognosis and terminal values anticipated by Tharp (cf. 137) for the general language course in the junior high school. Maronpot (95) reported equal success with an experimental French course using the reading approach over a five-year period in a Fall River (Massachusetts) high school. Méras (99), thinking it desirable that the classroom should become child-centered, suggested reading as the best opportunity to make it so. Engel (46) recommended exclusive attention to reading and aural objectives as the best way out of the "mastery" dilemma. Hinkle and Garodnick (73) surveyed the reading knowledge requirements for graduate students by means of 330 questionnaires submitted to deans, teachers, and former graduate students from leading colleges of the country, and filed some valuable suggestions for the betterment of the situation. Noteworthy among the various reading lists published were Nissen's (107) list of available editions of Italian classics; Handschin's (71) list of English works on French, German, Spanish, and Italian artists, composers, writers, and statesmen; Lilling's (93) list of 150 technical, vocational, and scientific periodicals in French, classified with addresses, price, and publication data; Peacock's (117) list of 66 French books in differentiated reading (music, science, social studies, and so forth); and Pane's (116) list of 91 titles of Latin-American literature in English translation.

Vocabulary

It seems difficult to believe that any stone has been left unturned in vocabulary research, when one notes the twenty-four general categories and the 1,145 entries of Dale's tabulation (30) of published and unpublished studies on vocabulary selection in all languages, up to and through 1938. With the publication of Eaton's semantic frequency list for English, French, German, and Spanish (45), showing in parallel column arrangement the correlation of the first 6,000 words in four single-language frequency lists, it became possible for language teachers and textbook makers to exercise some degree of word selection on the basis of the *idea* rather than the mere symbol. West and Bond (157) combined the frequency indexes of 4,759 items in the Vander Beke French word count, to form 2,019 groupings of related words, arranged (a) according to the combined frequency index, and (b) alphabetically according to the base- or root-word. By this rearrangement into "frequency groups," the authors hoped to facilitate the teaching of related words, otherwise often widely separated or excluded in adhering to strict Vander Beke ranges; to foster inferential reading; and to discover the words of richest yield (and hence more nearly "basic"). Lists of Latin roots and their French derivatives, and of common French affixes, are appended to the main list.

In search of a practical basic Spanish list of words and idioms, Keniston (88) revised an earlier list published by the University of Chicago Press, taking as a core 1,500 words derived from three objective counts, and

grouping them (a) as fundamental and structural, (b) as essential, and (c) as indispensable. To these three groups, he added a fourth group of 500 "useful" words, selected more or less subjectively, a body of 1,060 derivatives of words in groups 1-4, selected from Buchanan's list, and 575 idioms and phrases deriving from groups 1-4, controlled by the Keniston idiom count. Definitions were checked against the Faucett-Maki, Eaton (45), and *Interim Report* lists. To the main reference list of 3,635 items, he appended alphabetized checklists of the four groups referred to above, a discussion of Spanish affixes, a list of place names, and a short bibliography of standard word-frequency counts.

Tharp (138) undertook to solve the problem of measuring contextual vocabulary burden. He proposed a new unit of measurement that would take into account both the spread of density and the burden of frequency, and submitted it to trial in an analysis of the vocabulary difficulty of twelve well-known beginning French reading texts. Dividing the frequency index by the density ratio, he obtained a vocabulary difficulty index that seemed more nearly to meet the requirements than had the attempts of Pressey and Liveley, Johnson, Arnold, Cole, and Mullins and Stone, and that would stand up under actual use in text evaluation.

Miller and Farr (101), working with cognates, found experimentally that the average high-school student who has not studied Spanish can recognize about 750 Spanish words within the first 5,000 of the Buchanan list. Johnston (80) examined the first 3,000 words in the Buchanan Spanish list and in the Thorndike English list, found over 1,000 words in each language related through their common Latin origin, and suggested several possibilities for their use in teaching. Among the special vocabulary lists, baseball rated twice: (160) for French and (33) for Spanish. Nunn and Schweitzer listed Spanish war terms (108). Kuehne (91), using Rand McNally's *Commercial Atlas*, listed 1,091 place names in the United States of French, Spanish, German, Italian, Latin, and Greek origin, and proposed their use in the cultural content of the foreign language class. Galland (54) conducted an interesting and suggestive inquiry into the letter-frequency of 10,000 running letters in French. He found, for example, that the letter "E" ranked first with a frequency of 1,871, and "S" second (860); that 5 letters constituted one-half of the total number; that the 10,000 letters produced 7,280 French sounds; and that 8 sounds made up one-half of the total.

Phonetics

The question of what Spanish pronunciation should be taught in American classrooms was considered by Jones (81), who suggested a "synthesized, middle-of-the-road pronunciation" which would imitate some of the variants from Castilian heard generally in most Spanish-American countries. Lembi and Kaulfers (92) presented a classroom method for teaching Italian pronunciation inductively. Varney (148) gave data on types and

frequency of errors in articulation, intonation, and the mechanics of French speech, detected in the recordings of 306 students during the first week of a phonetics course. The data have a pertinent bearing on secondary-school preparation for language continuation. In a series of four articles, the same writer (149) outlined in detail a college course in phonetics, with definitions, materials, plans, a daily program, tables, and graphs. Delattre made an analytical study of anticipation in vowel-plus-consonant groups (34), and a second study of consonantal force of utterance (35).

General Language

Several of the writers discussed in preceding sections of this review (16, 78, 84) suggested the trial of general language as a first step in a foreign language program, some seeing in it a value approximating if not exceeding that of a year in a single language. Coutant and others (28), working experimentally with general language in the University School, Columbus, Ohio, arrived at the opinion that the general language course might well be incorporated in the common school curriculum, as English, on its own merits. They were not convinced of the prognostic values of general language. Tharp (137) supported their argument for general language as a curriculum placement, giving administrative considerations and a plan for its incorporation into small schools at the ninth-grade level, to be followed by alternating three-year courses in Latin and French, or other desirable alternation. Tanner (135) sensed an impulse toward general language growing out of world conditions, and saw in it objectives and content that would make it a "core curriculum." Arndt and Kirkpatrick (11) described a three-year experiment with general language in an experimental unit of the Evanston (Illinois) High School, consisting of exploratory reading of simple Latin, French, Spanish, and German, with English readings in the foreign cultures. Baird (13) described the general language course at Elk Grove (California) High School, and urged the placing of such a course in the first year of the high-school curriculum. Vose (152) gave an account of a general language course at the eighth-grade level in the Champaign (Illinois) Junior High School.

Language Aids

Shane (128) submitted an excellent list of materials, with costs and uses, for an audio-visual library. The classroom utilization of motion picture films, based on topical texts and with a controlled vocabulary, Palomo (114) considered to be particularly desirable as the best means of securing the twofold approach—aural and visual—conducive to acceleration of the language learning process. In a second article (115), the same writer specified that the educational language film, at the language learning level, should be neither travelog nor entertainment, but that it should be a special story, with controlled vocabulary, natural dialog, slowed

speech, and not exceeding ten minutes in length. Greene (65) discussed the use, in conjunction with the film showing, of film dialog script fitted with marginal vocabulary helps as a means of teaching vocabulary and making the proper language associations. Amner (5) discussed problems and procedures involved in adapting the radio to listening periods in connection with courses in Spanish conversation. For the teacher who uses recordings in a foreign language as a means of developing language skills and cultural appreciation, Goding's list (60) of French, Spanish, and Italian records renders valuable assistance. Wachs (153) and Adam (1) described programs and guidance of a Spanish language club. From thousands of written comments from language teachers received by a publishing firm, Mazel (97) drew up two effective checklists for teachers considering textbook adoptions.

Evaluation and Achievement

Giduz reported the results of the French placement tests given at the University of North Carolina in 1939 (56), 1940 (57), 1941 (58), and 1942 (59). In his judgment, the 1939 tests indicated that too many students who come to college with credit for two years of high-school work in French are not prepared to do advanced work in college. The 1940 tests showed an improvement in the preparation of entering students, but the 1941 group dropped back to the level of 1939. Performance in the 1942 tests was still lower. Giduz, while prepared to make reasonable allowances for war conditions, felt that inferior teaching must share the blame.

In an experiment at Stephens College, reported by Smith (131), students who had been assigned a French course on the basis of previous experience were divided, at the end of the first semester, into a slow and a fast section on the basis of their scores on a standardized test. Improvement of the learning speed of both sections resulted, with the fast section showing greater gain. No harmful psychological effects were noted. This experiment deserves to be repeated on a larger scale which would yield more reliable results.

Gabbert (53) described the construction and use of a prognosis test for a reading course in Spanish. His test of one hundred items was fairly reliable (.89 and .87 for the two forms) and correlated to the extent of .69 with the end-of-semester grades of students who completed the course.

Ryans (126) and Flanagan (48) made respectively a summary report and a statistical analysis of the results of the first (1940) administration of the National Teacher Examinations. Flanagan concluded that candidates for teaching positions are not equally well qualified, and that a fairly long and varied battery of examinations is necessary to describe the various candidates adequately. Spaulding (133) discussed the achievement of the modern foreign language candidates in these examinations. She concluded that, as a group, the modern foreign language candidates were relatively well prepared, although the range of ability represented in the

group was exceedingly wide, both in the special field and in the common examinations. Flanagan (49) also published a preliminary study of the validity of the 1940 examinations. Ryans reported the administration of the 1941 form of the National Teacher Examinations in both a general article (125) and a more detailed analysis (124).

For persons interested in achievement testing in the Romance languages, the most important single work appearing during this period was *The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Buros (23). It continued, on a much larger scale, the work of *The Nineteen Thirty-eight Mental Measurements Yearbook*, compiled by the same editor. It contained bibliographical data on and critical reviews of thirteen standardized tests of achievement in French, five tests in Spanish, and one test in Italian.

Jackson and Stalnaker (77) published a report on the College Entrance Examination Board's French examination of June 1938, which embodied certain changes from the form of French examination previously used. Tharp (136), in a discussion of their report, argued for the replacement of the translation questions by skill and index measurements of reading and writing, and for the addition of two other tests: one of aural comprehension, and one of French civilization. He suggested measuring writing as a skill by a free composition at each level, based on a picture with a small suggestive vocabulary appended.

Traxler (143) reported the correlation between achievement scores on cooperative tests and school marks in an independent school for boys. Tests were administered after the school marks had been given. The correlations for German and Latin tended to be considerably higher than those for French. His evidence indicates that probably the Latin and French tests did not have a sufficiently high ceiling to measure adequately achievement in fourth-year classes in these languages in that particular school.

In two articles, Andrus (9, 10) described a test of French composition, designed for the lower and intermediate levels, which could be scored objectively, and which, at the institution where it was developed, yielded comparable results from year to year. Reliabilities reported ranged from .91 to .94 for a test of 100 items. Sister Marie Philip Haley (69) reported the construction, administration, and uses of an oral test in French pronunciation capable of objective and quantitative scoring. A checklist, on which were recorded the number and the nature of the errors made in the examination, was given to the student. This test should prove valuable in diagnostic testing, as well as in achievement testing. Smith and Campbell (132) investigated the correlation of comparable recall and recognition tests in French grammar. They concluded that both types tested approximately the same knowledge, regardless of "passive" or "active" form. The result of this study was in line with similar studies in vocabulary testing.

Hocking (75) described a test designed to measure the student's comprehension of outside reading in French. From the sample items, one

judges that the test would be useful in institutions where books for outside reading are prescribed. Far fewer investigations of measurement in Romance languages were reported from the larger institutions than might have been expected. This is regrettable, since, as a rule, the large universities, having the advantage of numbers, are potentially capable of producing more reliable studies.

Teacher Training, Certification, and Placement

Inasmuch as this topic has been treated by Tharp in a preceding chapter, only a short paragraph will be given here. Anderson's analysis (7) of the placement of 522 graduates of Ohio State University prepared to teach in 1939, showed that out of twenty graduates who desired positions in French, only nine were placed, and only two of these received positions involving any French. His data were suggestive of things to come. In a previous article, the same writer, with Richey (8), summarized the opinions of 194 educators in regard to graduate (fifth year) requirements for public-school teachers. The median response indicated 35 percent of preparation in education, 30 percent in academic subjects, and 25 percent cultural; 93 percent of the educators recommended the inclusion of courses in each of the three areas.

Bibliographies

For the triennium 1939-42, one should consult the indispensable annotated bibliographies of modern language methodology prepared or edited annually by Tharp (140, 141, 142), the current issues of the *Education Index*, and the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. For doctoral theses in modern foreign languages in 1938-39, see Doyle (39); only a few researchers were concerned with language teaching problems. Dale and Vernon (31) issued an annotated bibliography on materials used for the social aims of foreign language teaching which might be construed by the public as "propaganda."

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CHAPTER IX

Composition, Public Speaking, Vocabulary, Grammar, Spelling, and Handwriting

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Summaries of Research

SUMMARIES OF RESEARCH in the various aspects of the language arts, published during the years 1940-42, have been numerous and helpful. In the *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH* for April 1940, Leonard (129) presented an extensive and analytical review of investigations in language and composition for the years 1937-39. Freeman (129) did the same for handwriting, Horn (129) for spelling, and Spencer and Horn (129) for speech. The present summary is supplementary to theirs, using the issue of April 1940, as a point of departure. The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, which appeared in 1941, furnished valuable and comprehensive résumés of the status of research in the several fields of language study—Freeman's (45) in handwriting, Greene's (64) in English, Horn's (76) in spelling, and McCarthy's (88) in language and child development in the preschool years. Ragsdale (108) also reviewed studies of the growth of language in young children in his chapter in *Child Psychology* edited by Skinner and Harriman. All these authors recognized the necessity of applying the findings of research directly to classroom practice and of presenting them in clear-cut, nontechnical language which teachers can understand. Foster and Hampel (44), reporting for the National Conference on Research in English, performed a useful and untiring service in collecting and summarizing unpublished research in all phases of the language arts for the year 1940. The selected references in spelling (21, 66), handwriting (46, 62), and English (117) in the *Elementary School Journal* for October of each year, and in high-school English in the February *School Review* (118) include reports of research as well as general articles in the field. All these sources have been of assistance to the writer in the preparation of this review.

A Philosophy of the Language Arts

Basic to research in any field of learning is a clear concept of the goals to be achieved. The report of the Basic Aims Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English (94), prepared by a committee of five and supplemented by suggestions and criticisms from thirty members of the Board of Directors, views language as a social instrument, the basis of

communication and understanding in the modern world. It stresses the fact that in standards of use, selection of experiences, and methods of developing language power, factors such as the emotional and psychological status of the pupil, the social situation in which he uses language, and the drive which impels him to expression must have equal consideration with the mere study of linguistics, and that the rhetoric to be taught should consist of the forms of communication vital to life as he faces it in a democratic community today.

Language in General Education, a report of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association, (107) gives added emphasis to a platform of language conceived as "the instrument above all others by which most persons are enabled at once to develop and participate in their own culture"—a power "embedded in human living" and capable of disrupting or welding together both individuals and social groups. Horn (75) added appreciably to our concept of the psychological implications of language in his chapter on "Language and Meaning" in the National Society yearbook on the *Psychology of Learning*. In his emphasis upon the background of experience necessary to read meanings into words and the semantic difficulties caused by the personal and emotional connotations of them, he again demonstrated the complexity and difficulty of the task of developing power and precision in the use of language. In all these discussions there is obvious the growing tendency to consider reading and expression as complementary parts of a single, unified linguistic process.

General Evaluation of Outcomes in the Language Arts

Four volumes, to date, record the objectives, procedures, and results of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association (2, 26, 55, 119), experimenting with a curriculum to meet the needs of adolescents today. The philosophy back of the study puts the adolescent and his fullest development, his natural and effective adjustment to contemporary society, above any set standards of academic achievement in specific subjectmatter areas. Results indicate that for the types of students used in the experiment and with the kind of teachers and equipment available, the general outcomes were realized without hindering academic success even at the college level. Most helpful in the area of the language arts is the experimenting with measures for appraising student progress in discrimination and appreciation in reading and the analysis of factors important in the development of power in the use of language. Among them are work habits and study skills, techniques and skills in English, communication, reflective thinking, creative expression, appreciation and understandings, stimulation of interests, and development toward a functioning philosophy of life. Since the outcomes reported are general rather than specific—that is, determining the fact that "abilities necessary for college can be developed by a variety of preparations," the meaning of the results in English is difficult

to interpret. The descriptions of the types of training offered in the thirty schools (55) indicate a variety of programs ranging from distinctly conservative to somewhat radical in nature. Which of these brought about the adequacy of college preparation it is impossible to tell. There is some evidence to suggest that the two schools chosen as the "most progressive" in general may not have been among those which varied most significantly from the traditional program in English. Absence of clarity as to what "a progressive program" in English is and what program was actually followed by pupils achieving different results in the experiment makes the interpretation of its outcomes difficult.

The whole study has made a valuable contribution to the stimulation of thinking concerning basic hypotheses in teaching, toward methods of organizing an all-school study of the relationship of these hypotheses to the curriculum and general school procedure, and toward the development of means of appraising outcomes in English. The next step is to follow up its leads with small, carefully controlled studies in which precisely defined methods and curriculums can be reviewed in relationship to the growth they engender in specific young people, whose traits can be studied in the process.

Additional evidence of methods of appraisal used in this study and in others of a similar nature occurs in Wrightstone's (148) chapter in *An Evaluation of Modern Education* and in Giles's (54) article on "English in the Eight-Year Study." The ground is broken for the building of broader instruments of measurement of growth in language. All the experimenters are agreed that adequate refinement and testing of these measures still lie ahead.

Surveys of Instruction in English

Surveys of instruction focus attention upon the extent to which current practices in teaching are actually promoting the ends sought. For this contribution to thinking and as a basis for the improvement of instruction they have value for teachers and research workers in English. Seven are reported in the literature of the last three years, two at the college level, three in high school, and two in the elementary grades. The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education (111, 122) has recently made a comprehensive survey of the aims, courses, staff, and equipment of departments of English in major American colleges of engineering. Achievement was not tested, but facts and opinions concerning the best program in English for prospective engineers were gathered from students, faculty, alumni of representative American colleges, and from practicing engineers employing graduates of these institutions. Recommendations were for less literary courses with emphasis upon clear thinking and concise writing and speaking, more motivation and guidance toward independent reading, increased emphasis on oral work, a better quality of instruction from instructors especially trained to deal with nonacademic students, an opportunity for

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advancement for such instructors not endowed with a literary Ph.D., distribution of English work over more than the freshman year, and greater cooperation in the improvement of English by all members of the engineering faculty.

The Pittsburgh survey staff (104), studying the teaching of high-school English in that city, commended its persistent emphasis on spoken English. In the interests of "self-realization and transmission of the culture," they urged greater breadth in the program in literature; increased assistance in remedial reading; freer use of the radio, motion picture, theater, magazines, and similar resources in the guidance of pupils in the language arts; and avoidance of an artificial divorce between language and literature through the segregation of each in a separate semester.

The New York State Regents' Inquiry (96, 97) presented test results, analysis of programs through classroom visitation and study of syllabuses and records of reading interests and motion picture and radio listening habits of selected elementary- and high-school pupils throughout New York State. Especially commented upon were the need of equalizing opportunities for children in rural areas, the general lack in small schools of books suitable for carrying out the excellent reading program recommended by the state course of study, the need of adapting instruction to the many students who will leave school at or before graduation from high school, and the unfortunate restriction imposed upon the state by the Regents' examinations (the increased liberality of which has not yet become apparent to certain teachers and superintendents). At both the elementary- and high-school levels, the program in general showed an unfortunate break between the teaching of grammar, capitalization, and punctuation, and the actual expression of ideas. The correlation at the high-school level between ability to pass a usage test and ability to express ideas was .21. The methods of the Pittsburgh and New York State studies are suggestive for supervisors throughout the country. Their results, also, have more than local significance.

The Iowa State Association of teachers of English (60) feeling dissatisfied with the amount of emphasis placed on English expression in the junior and senior years, sent questionnaires to 755 schools in the state concerning their upper-class programs. The 461 teachers who replied indicated that traditional courses in English and American literature prevail, that exclusive use of the textbook is more common than library reading, that more school than public libraries serve the classes, and that more than 50 percent of the schools spend one day a week on grammar.

A significant report on English teaching in the Southwest among Spanish-speaking children comes from the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education (30). It reveals vividly the handicaps of lower socio-economic status, use of verbal intelligence tests to establish the I.Q.'s of foreign children, and limited textbook materials suitable for use in these schools. The report makes helpful suggestions for curriculum adjustments and for development of oral ability and of ability to read. Courses

and materials analyzed include those of continental United States, outlying areas like Puerto Rico and the Philippines, Canada, South America, Africa, and Palestine.

Problems of College Freshman English

Dissatisfaction with college Freshman English is general throughout the country. Vigorous attacks upon the problem are prevalent in the research of the last ten years. Most comprehensive of recent studies are those of the Society for Engineering Education (122) and the University of Illinois (109). The bulletin from Illinois presents a summary of the requirements in Freshman English in 459 college and university bulletins and the comments of 166 letters from heads of departments of English. Evidence of extensive experimentation with special programs for deficient and proficient freshmen abounds in the report, together with descriptions of methods used to insure maintenance of skills beyond the freshman year. The survey of related literature is exceedingly comprehensive, evidence of research being constantly brought to bear upon such questions as articulation between high school and college, the writing laboratory, and the teaching of grammar.

Evidence concerning the proportion of colleges requiring freshman composition, the length of the course, the number of students per section, policies of grouping, the amount of writing done, and plans for the follow-up of competence is also available in the report of the Committee of Inquiry into Required English Courses in American Colleges appointed by the college section of the National Council of Teachers of English (95).

Five studies have appeared which give evidence of results under various conditions of teaching Freshman English. Karp (81) reported slight differences in achievement between students taught by individual and group methods. In general, the poor students did better under group instruction and the superior ones under individual guidance. Thomas and Fattu (135) found similarly slight differences between results in laboratory and class instruction. On the whole, the nonlaboratory groups surpassed their mates in the mechanics of English, but not in content, organization, and presentation of ideas in composition.

Beck (13) measured results in Freshman English by pre-test and post-test procedures, using the Rinsland-Beck Natural Test of English Usage. One hundred sixty-four students made an average gain of 23.8 percentile points, seven made the same score on both tests, and forty-two made an average loss of 17.1 percentile points.

Solterer (123), retesting freshmen on the Co-Operative English Tests after seven months of remedial instruction in usage and spelling, found improvement in spelling considerable but obtained disappointing results in usage.

Wykoff (149) compared results on an extensive final examination in Freshman English of students who took the course in English I and twenty-

five students who were allowed to work by themselves to achieve "clear, correct, effective writing." The latter group had advisers to whom they might go for assistance if they wished. The chances of success were 44 percent better for those who fulfilled the regular requirements of the course. Thirteen failed who did not take the course, and seven out of twenty-five who did.

Evaluation of Essays and Essay Examinations

Lively research concerning the most valid and reliable methods of marking English essays has been going on for some time in Great Britain under the direction of Sir Philip Hartog's subcommittee of the International Institute Examinations Enquiry (79).

In its final experiment the committee set three theme topics not directed to any purpose or person and three "directed" compositions "written with a given audience and a given object in view." The purpose was to study the effect upon quality ratings and upon the reliability of individual markers of adding a score for *sense or attainment of specified purpose* to the combined score for *general impression* and specific categories such as sentence structure, spelling, vocabulary, and the like. Results indicated that consideration of the *sense* of the composition improved the quality of the writing but did not lessen the variability in marks.

Cast (25) had twelve examiners grade forty papers by four different methods to see which brought about the clearest differentiation in marks. The methods, in order of value, were (a) detailed analytic grading, (b) general impression, (c) the individual method of each examiner, and (d) scoring on the basis of the extent of achievement of the pupil's own purpose.

Morrison and Vernon (92) had sixty-six themes scored in different ways by two sets of five matched examiners. One was Steel and Talman's method, which ignores subjectmatter and grades on the basis of (a) vocabulary, choice of words, and idioms; (b) sentence structure; and (c) sentence linkings. It brought better results than the combined method of impressionistic and analytical rating in agreement among the judges and in dispersion of the papers—though the distribution was skewed. Examiners objected to it as failing to consider important logical and esthetic aspects of composition. Both methods proved equally reliable.

In this country Anderson and Traxler (4) secured remarkably high agreement between two readers and by the same reader on rescoreing the papers when they gave high-school students notes on a social studies theme, furnished an outline, and asked pupils to write the essay test from these data. Eight categories for scoring were given to the readers. The experimenters believe high agreement can be attained on the marking of essay examinations under these circumstances.

Halvorson (69) found college freshmen preferred mere checks in the margin to indicate errors in their themes to specific notation of errors by means of symbols. Results of instruction were the same in both cases.

Hinton (74), with the aid of seventy well-trained and successful English

teachers in twenty states, has prepared a master list of composition qualities which distinguish good writing from poor.

Humphreys (78) experimented successfully in Grades IV, V, and VI with means of teaching children to analyze and improve the qualities of their own compositions. The study offers much needed help for developing the initiative and independent growth of pupils and for relieving the teacher of large classes.

Speech

More research has been done in speech in the last three years than in any aspect of language instruction except the development of vocabulary. Interest is keen in discovering the extent to which speech work is being extended throughout the schools. Anderson (5) found speech increasing in forty-seven colleges in twenty-four states, with free clinical service in many instances offered on a noncredit basis. Moses (93) found seventeen out of thirty colleges conducting speech clinics and twenty-eight with testing programs in operation. Mathews (89) discovered 80 percent or more of the tests used in public schools, colleges, and universities to be subjective in character and to deal chiefly with voice, articulation, and enunciation. Karr (82) reported that specialized courses in speech and participation in speech activities have increased, not decreased, in the experiment with integrated programs in Los Angeles.

Hayworth (72) carried on an elaborate research in five institutions to develop objective evaluations of success in public speaking. Through ratings of speakers by the listeners, measures of shifts of opinion or retention of information by the audience, examination of stage fright, and such objective measures as counting eye contacts, breaks in fluency, and proper gestures or transitions, the experiment proved that objective measurement of results in speech is clearly possible.

Other studies applying various techniques of measurement found that (a) the pleasantness of a speaker's voice (40) over a public address system cannot be predicted from ratings of his natural voice; (b) the intercorrelations (63) between speech performance, knowledge of principles of speech, and grades in English hover about .40; (c) foreign accent (8) affects grades in the speech course but not I.Q., honor point ratios, or college aptitude; and (d) progress (98) in inflection, pause, and variation of force can be detected after two months of training in oral interpretation.

Important experiments have been made to determine the relationship between personality traits and success in speech. Gilkinson and Knower (56, 57, 58), segregating students in the top and bottom one-fourth of college sophomores and juniors in speech classes, found those superior in attainment to have higher scores in social adjustment and dominance than did the lower group. They also had more positive likes in vocational interests, especially tending to choose English teaching as a profession. The good also tended to have more active reading habits and more experi-

ence in public speaking. No emotional differences were observable between the good and poor students.

Dow (37) questioned the possibility of predicting too close a relationship between public speaking and personality on the basis of total personality scores. Ascendance was the only trait in which he found a significant positive correlation with success in speech among 153 college students.

Chenoweth (27) found continuous and varied speech experiences the chief differentiating factor on the Bernreuter inventory between well-adjusted and maladjusted students. Rose (112) discovered twice as great a decrease in neurotic tendencies in speech groups as in nonspeech groups among more than five hundred college students. Sanford's (114) evidence from two case studies corroborates these findings.

Both Dow (36) and Eckert and Keys (38) found a low but positive correlation between effectiveness in speech and college aptitude. That for oral interpretation and intelligence was higher.

Gaines (50) presented a careful analytical summary of research on speech and reading difficulties. Some relationship exists, he believes, but the limited amount of research and the inadequacy of techniques used in certain studies suggest caution in making positive claims on the basis of them.

Steinberg (132) photographed cord vibrations of low and high pitched voices of trained and untrained speakers among deaf pupils.

Of special interest to classroom teachers are four studies dealing with diagnosis of weaknesses in speech, with the progress of children in carrying on discussion in the elementary school, and with social needs in business speaking and social conversation. Bohannon (18) developed an informal diagnostic speech rating scale for use in the ninth grade and adapted a course of study in the ninth grade to the weaknesses she found in the pupils' speech.

Baker (10) made a comprehensive analysis of the topics discussed and the nature of the discussions carried on by 342 children in Grades II, IV, and VI in three schools in districts of varied socio-economic levels in New York City. Ninety-six discussion periods were used when children were free to contribute anything they wished under the chairmanship of a "non-contributing, non-commenting" teacher. Three-fourths or more of the topics concerned matters of current interest—fact, not fiction. Second-grade children spoke of animals, play, and home and family life. Fourth-grade pupils discussed trips, metropolitan happenings like the World's Fair, and books and movies. Sixth-grade pupils discussed world and national affairs as well as metropolitan happenings. There was an increase from grade to grade in remoteness of place associations as contrasted with local and personal happenings, in materials taken from vicarious experience or resulting from the children's own thinking, in the average number of contributions per pupil, and in the unity and association of ideas indicative of a real "meeting of minds."

Timmons' (138) study of the types of speech used in business corroboro-

rates Clapp's findings that there is need for more preparation in informal or private speaking in business than for training in public speaking. His scale of elements of social conversation (139) will prove helpful to many teachers. Use of it in his own college classes revealed that inability to draw out unwilling talkers, failure to assume a responsibility for a share in conversation, and problems of delivery present more problems than the content of conversation. Determination of difficulties in conversing with the opposite sex as contrasted with members of the same sex is a useful innovation of this study. Boys think girls are too studious in their conversation and too limited in their interests. Girls think boys "use a line" and "wise-crack" unduly.

Letter Writing

Zehlig's (150) study of letters written by sixth-grade pupils again calls attention to the most useful forms of letters to be taught in the intermediate grades. Friendly letters to relatives, family, and friends loom large. Fan mail to radio stations, athletes, and the like shares second place with letters to sick friends. Letters of thanks for gifts, and writing, accepting, and declining invitations come next in frequency, followed by business letters to buy things or to order catalogs, samples, and the like.

Evidently interest in the sick has increased since Fitzgerald (42) found children writing few letters of sympathy, condolence, or congratulations. Adding to his original data material from three other studies, he reported as the chief difficulties children have with letter writing in the intermediate grades (a) recognizing situations in which it is courteous to write letters, (b) implied courtesy or impoliteness due to crudities of expression, and (c) difficulties in mechanical form. Errors in sentence sense, mistakes due to carelessness, end of sentence punctuation, and simple uses of the comma cause most of the trouble. Although the number of errors in children's letters seems to increase from the fourth grade through the sixth, the number of errors per one hundred words actually decreases.

Critical Thinking

An important contribution to English teaching is Glaser's (59) analysis of the process of thinking, his review of research on the subject, and his experiment to discover the extent to which the critical processes can be taught. After ten weeks of teaching to twelfth-grade pupils a series of lessons on aspects of critical thinking, he found significant improvement in the experimental classes as contrasted with the control groups in (a) a disposition to consider thoughtfully problems that came within the range of their experience, (b) the habit of seeking evidence for beliefs, and (c) skill in applying methods of logical inquiry and reasoning, always within the limits of the pupil's fund of pertinent knowledge. Highly correlated with gain in critical thinking were skill in language comprehension, intelligence, and school marks. Nevertheless, weak pupils as well as strong ones made significant gains.

Vocabulary

The importance of mastery of a basic vocabulary in English, both for those who approach it as a foreign language and for those who use it as a native tongue, keeps investigators busy devising means of determining which concepts and symbols in the language have greatest social usefulness.

C. C. Fries (48) and his committee have prepared for the American Council on Education a complete history of word counts and limited vocabularies with notes on method of choice, dictionary counts, inadequacy of mere frequency of use as a determiner of significance, and the need of semantic counts. It outlines recommendations for the preparation of a restricted list and problems for further study.

Hartmann (71) deplored current methods of sampling. Lists vary, he believes, with the size of the dictionary used. They also ignore that precision of definition which is necessary if adults are to have an opportunity to reveal the richness of their background in vocabulary. He estimates that the average undergraduate in college has a recognition vocabulary of more than 200,000 words.

Voelker (142), studying the words used chiefly by college freshmen in 100,000 running words of speech, found that nine words make up one-fourth of all those heard in student classroom speeches, and fifty words make up one-half of them. Study of the 1,000 most frequent words in the active vocabulary of speakers leads him to believe there is a real difference between written and spoken vocabulary. His list and Horn's written vocabulary have 68 percent of their respective words in common.

Brittain and Fitzgerald (22) present a list of 810 different words used in more than 3,000 second-grade themes, half of them directed and half undirected. The undirected show a wider range and more personal type of interest than the directed compositions on subjects set by the teachers. This study corroborates Baker's evidence on the normal interests of second-grade children.

Luella Cole (28), summarizing results of vocabulary studies in special areas, has prepared a basic technical vocabulary list of essential elementary ideas in thirteen school subjects. The words are grouped by topic within subjects. For each word is given the Thorndike frequency rating.

The Testing of Vocabulary

Weppner (143) built a vocabulary test of 970 words for Grades III to VIII, choosing the first word on the top of the second column of each page of the Thorndike Junior Dictionary. On the basis of this test, she found progress in vocabulary consistent from grade to grade. The average vocabulary range in thirty-two schools was from 4,300 in the third grade to 9,500 in the tenth.

Cronbach (34) criticized tests of vocabulary which assume a high correlation between general vocabulary and richness or intensity of word knowledge. He defined behavior called for in understanding a word as

ability (a) to define the word, (b) to recognize a synonym for it in context, (c) to recognize its different meanings in different contexts, (d) to have a precise knowledge of its exact meanings, and (e) to use it in thinking and discourse.

On the contrary, Lovell (87), testing eighty-two college students on both commonest and multiple meanings for the same word, found the two to be closely enough related to suggest that for general purposes, the one could be estimated from the other.

Tinker (140) compared the speed of association of one hundred high-school and junior college students to fifty easy and fifty hard words with their scores on a standardized test of vocabulary. He also compared the speed of association of the same students to 120 hard words with their vocabulary scores on the same words. The correlations were sufficiently high to suggest that a free association technique may be used to measure specific vocabulary knowledge.

Tireman and Woods (141) found intermediate-grade pupils made three times as many errors in a vocabulary test with marginal markings as they did when asked only to underline the correct response.

Basing their analysis of the total size of an individual's vocabulary upon a threefold test of (a) common basic words, (b) rare basic words, and (c) a small sample of derivative words of less importance, Seashore and Eckerson (115) estimated an average vocabulary of 155,736 words for college freshmen and sophomores.

Evidence of Growing Maturity in Language

Studies by Gunderson (67) and by Bear and Odber (12) suggested fruitful fields for further investigation of growing maturity in vocabulary. Gunderson studied the shift from concrete association with particular situations to generalized meanings, and Bear and Odber, an increasing ability to sense the extent of one's power to detect and estimate the meaning of unknown words from context.

Factors Influencing Vocabulary

Carr (23) quoted evidence of previous investigations and added some of his own to prove that students of Latin are superior in English vocabulary to students who have not had Latin. Hackman (68) does the same for foreign languages in general. In the case of Hackman's study the evidence is more clear for the influence of foreign languages upon English usage than it is upon spelling or vocabulary. French and Spanish come first in potency in his results, and Latin and German somewhat lower. Carroll (24) made conflicting claims in his investigation which was previously summarized.

Smith (121) presented a detailed and carefully controlled study comparing the vocabularies of Hawaiian children of non-American ancestry before the age of seven with the frequencies of the International Kindergarten Union study of the vocabulary of American children before entering

the first grade. She found marked differences in the words used, owing to climate and environment, settings of the records made, and the prevalence of English dialects and other tongues.

The high relationship between vocabulary and intelligence is attested by Flemming's study (43) in which members of a children's home are compared in growth in vocabulary with boys and girls in their own homes. In general, the latter proved to be better, although the differences were not great except for superior children.

Interest in word building from roots, prefixes, and suffixes continues. Teachers will be aided in the wise choice of words for study by Thorndike's (137) list of ninety suffixes, accompanied by the most commonly used words ending in each. Three types of information are given for these words: (a) frequency and range of use in reading (b) ease of recognition as made up of root and suffix, and (c) ease of inferring meaning from root and prefix.

Stauffer (131), studying the prefixes appearing in Thorndike's original list of the 20,000 most commonly used words, found fifty-eight basic forms. Fifteen of them made up 83 percent of the total number occurring in the list. The proportion of words with prefixes tended to increase with each succeeding thousand.

Carroll (24) offered evidence of lack of value in the study of roots and affixes in an investigation of the ability of college students to pick words with the same prefix, suffix, or root, from a list containing similar letters but not the same forms: *repeat, return, ready, read*. Results brought correlations of .25 with intelligence, .42 with English vocabulary, and .48 with the study of Latin. The author believes that specific stress on unknown words would bring greater growth in vocabulary than study of derivatives in either English or Latin.

Developing Vocabulary in the Classroom

Seven studies in the last three years have been concerned with methods of developing vocabulary in the classroom. Addy's inquiry (1), national in scope, revealed the fact that the most common source of words taught in the intermediate grades is the literature and reading materials in content subjects. Standard word lists are not looked upon with favor by teachers. Use of the dictionary to locate words in reading context and relating new words to former experiences are the most common methods of attack upon new words. Teachers find little value in the study of etymology or root, prefix, and suffix in the middle grades. Types of lessons most frequently used are selection of best descriptive words and blank filling.

Sanderson (113) brought about significant growth in vocabulary in the intermediate grades by using lists of words selected from all subjects of study and making a direct attack upon both meaning and spelling of them. Jenkins (80) tried four different methods of vocabulary development in the seventh grade. For reading, the individual word-card method proved

best and use of a workbook ranked second. For written expression, the individual word-card method was best for weak pupils, and analysis of root, prefix, and suffix for superior ones. The study of antonyms, synonyms, and special words came third.

In Bernard's experiment (14), significant gains in vocabulary were achieved by weak students in college by direct study of ten to fifteen new words a week with special conferences with the instructor concerning meaning, context, and derivation. Three minutes spent at each class meeting in distinguishing word meanings and syllabication brought Curoe's (35) experimental group of college seniors well above the control groups at the end of two semesters. The adequacy of pairing in this experiment is difficult to judge from the summary available. College juniors and seniors again showed a gain in vocabulary above that of the control group in Blair's study (17) in which they assumed responsibility for owning a dictionary, looking up unfamiliar words, keeping a notebook of new words, and handing in daily lists with the meaning of the words, the source from which the meaning was secured, and illustrative sentences using the words.

Vocabulary and Success in College

Templeman (134, 135), analyzing results of the English placement test given at the University of Illinois, found the vocabulary section alone was as useful as the entire test for purposes of predicting a student's general average for all courses at the end of the year and better than his grade in Freshman rhetoric.

Smith (120) at Indiana University tested 251 graduate students in education on English vocabulary, usage, and spelling as measured by the Co-Operative English Test. In general, they were below the norm for seniors in spelling and usage, and above in vocabulary. In analyzing the factors involved, he found the youngest students superior to all but the 40-44 age group, the whites somewhat superior to the Negroes except in spelling, students with high scholarship above those with low marks, and the majors in English, mathematics, and social studies at the top while those in physical education and vocational training were at the foot. Smith concluded that vocabulary developed with experience, but that skills in spelling and English usage tended to decrease with lack of instruction and motivated practice.

English Grammar and Usage

The most extensive investigation in the field of grammar and usage is that of C. C. Fries (47, 49) for the National Council of Teachers of English, supported also by the Modern Language Association and the Linguistic Society of America. Using 2,000 complete letters and 1,000 excerpts from letters addressed to the Office of Education in Washington by writers whose families had been native Americans for three generations, Fries attempted to distinguish the forms used in standard American English,

popular or common English, and in vulgar English in this country today. He urges a real study of grammar as it governs current usage in our own country and not a grammar of rules borrowed from other languages. He finds three important devices in modern American English: (a) the forms of words to indicate such elements as number, agreement, and cases of pronouns; (b) function words such as prepositions, auxiliary verbs, and adverbial modifiers; and (c) word order, which supplants the case use of nouns for subject and object, and is now beginning to break down case forms of the pronoun. Fries finds much overlapping in forms between standard and vulgar English. The chief distinction of standard English is that it makes wider use of the resources of the language, whereas the vulgar remains poverty-stricken.

Wilcox (145) determined trends in emphasis upon grammar in fifty-one language textbooks for the sixth grade by counting the number of lessons devoted to formal grammar and the frequency of use of grammatical terms. The dates covered were 1901-40. The percentage of lessons dropped to less than 50 percent between 1901 and 1920. It remained constant, though with greater range in practice, until 1930, and dropped again about 25 percent between 1930 and 1940. There is some evidence of an increase in the years immediately preceding 1940. The extent of use of grammatical terms followed a similar pattern except that numbers for the decade 1911-20 and those for 1931-40 are approximately the same, whereas those for 1921-30 showed a considerable increase in use of grammatical nomenclature. Both parts of the study seem of limited value without evidence of what was said *about* the grammatical terms. Not the number of times a verb was mentioned, but how the verb was presented would seem important. There is room for much more analytical research on this problem.

Hansen (70) tested 144 unselected tenth-grade pupils after eleven weeks of instruction in a specially devised series of lessons in grammar and usage. On a test of 88 items of usage with parallel items of grammatical principles, they had gained 24 percent in usage and 14 percent in ability to give reasons for their choices. Absence of a control group leaves no basis for comparison of these results with gains that might have been made by other methods of attack upon the problem. The question raised in the title, whether grammar *should* be taught to unselected tenth graders, is not, apparently, considered in the study.

Edmiston and Gingerich (39) correlated scores on the Hudelson Typical Composition Ability Scale with those on different parts of a comprehensive test in English usage. In general, the correlations decreased from the fourth grade through the twelfth, presumably as the range of scores became smaller. Especially low at the eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels were correlations between knowledge of the parts of speech and the parts of the sentence and scores in composition. The relationship between usage and expression remained at .54 or above in all grades except three, where they were between .40 and .44. This is higher than the .21 found in the Regents'

Inquiry (97), where schools tended, in many instances, to slight expression for drills in usage or vice versa. These studies support the contention that ability in usage and in expression are not the same thing, and the one cannot be achieved through practice on the other alone.

Wheeler (144) added to available studies of the errors made by children in language, grammar, punctuation, and capitalization a comprehensive analysis of mistakes occurring in approximately six thousand compositions written by rural and city children in Grades III through XII in the state of Kentucky. The types of errors made by the two groups are identical, but the number of errors made by rural children notably exceeds that of the city groups. The study conceals much valuable evidence concerning growth in language power from grade to grade because tabulations of frequencies of error are made in terms of the percentage each is of the total number of mistakes made instead of the percentage each is of the possibility for error at each grade level. The frequency of use is ignored throughout; therefore, gains are impossible to compute. In general, it can be said that the rank of sentence errors is first in Grades III-VI and remains high throughout Grades VII-XII. Problems of capitalizing common and proper nouns, of redundancy, and of sentence clarity increase at the high-school level. Throughout all grades, use of the present for the past and failure in agreement are in the top ranks in difficulty.

Pease (102) found twenty-five errors per one thousand words in seventh-grade social studies notebooks on the Westward Movement. Of these, half were in spelling. Next in order were errors in capitalization and careless omissions.

Very illuminating is the Heiders' study (73) of differences in sentence structure in the work of deaf and hearing children. Use of a moving picture film suitable to set the content for children of a wide range of age is a novel feature of the study. Distribution of scores by ages instead of by grades is another aid to the study of patterns of growth. Deaf children use shorter, simpler sentences with fewer subordinate clauses. Succeeding elements of the sentence bear an additive relationship to what has gone before, fewer of them demanding nice distinctions in the use of connectives. Their temporal clauses, for instance, tend to follow the main clause and are usually introduced by *when* or *after*. The most common clauses used are noun clauses built up step by step as the sentence progresses: "The mother saw that the monkey had taken the banana, and she said that he was naughty." The study furnishes much food for thought concerning the relationship of sentence structure to growing maturity of thinking and to breadth of experience. It also suggests that something is to be gained through an oral approach to sentence patterns.

Several recent studies furnish evidence of factors which affect progress or measurement in the field of usage: (a) recency of instruction (106, 120); (b) foreign language study (23, 68); (c) the nature of the test items—whether set sentences or broader context material (19); and (d) a complex set of interrelated factors like those Bradford (2) found in his study

of adults; occupation, extent of education, socio-economic status, and the like.

Milligan (91) gave encouraging evidence of the fact that children in the primary grades may gain some consciousness of punctuation from having their attention called to marks of punctuation in their reading material and from watching the teacher write to their dictation while she explains the reason for the punctuation marks she uses. The majority of the children in his second-grade experiment could name and give the reason for the period or question mark at the end of a sentence, and the capital letter for the pronoun, I, names of persons and places, and the capital letter at the beginning of a sentence. Many also knew the apostrophe in contractions, the period after abbreviations, and capital letters in a title.

Spelling—Words To Be Taught

Four new spelling lists are available in the research of the last three years. Brittain and Fitzgerald (22) present, with frequency of error, 810 words which make up 85 percent of the total misspellings in themes of 3,574 second-grade children. Fitzgerald (41), combining words from this and similar investigations for Grades III-VI, furnishes a crucial vocabulary core from the 100 most frequently misspelled words in each grade and a master list of 222 demons.

Betts (15, 16) found unanimous agreement on grade placement of only one word in seventeen spellers produced between 1934-38. He presented evidence of the frequency and range of grade placement of 8,645 words, together with the frequency of a supplementary list for the first grade. According to Potthoff (105), there is little evidence of scientific selection of spelling words in twenty recently published college textbooks in rhetoric and composition. Fifty percent of them appear in one text only. Potthoff lists, with Horn and Thorndike ratings, those which appear more than once.

Diagnosis of Spelling Difficulties

Spache (125, 126, 127, 128) has prepared in usable form a list of spelling errors combined from previous studies as an aid to objective recording of types of spelling difficulty. He also summarized those factors related to spelling disability on which evidence is conflicting or negative, and those on which it is positive. The following appear as closely related to success in spelling: (a) physical factors, including vision, auditory acuity and discrimination, handwriting, and speech; and (b) intellectual and social factors, including intelligence, attitudes, phonetic skills and knowledge, vocabulary skill, home background, and educational history. In another investigation, Spache (124) sorted out average and poor spellers and found the mean percent of each type of error made by individuals. Average spellers were more prone to make phonetic errors, additions, and substitutions; poor spellers, more nonphonetic errors. Poor spellers were more

given to omitting sounded letters and whole syllables. They also wrote more incomplete and unrecognizable spellings.

In a series of photographs of eye movements of the same children, studying new and difficult words in Grades IV, V, and VI successively, Gilbert (52, 53) proved his point that maturity of perceptual habits in spelling is characterized by a rapid approach resembling a simple verification process coupled with efficient discrimination of hard points. He therefore urges avoidance of prolonged minute examination of semifamiliar sequences, and increased speed and broadened recognition span in teaching children effective study habits in spelling.

Alper (3) at Wellesley College found that a test of fifty words frequently misspelled in freshman themes, together with thirty more difficult words from a standardized test, proved a useful diagnostic instrument on which to base remedial work. Phonetic errors and distorted phonetic spellings caused most of the errors. Definite *hard spots* appeared in the words missed. Evidence pointed also to the fact that a judicious use of rules and generalizations might prove of value at the college level.

Methods of Teaching Spelling

Several studies throw light on methods of teaching spelling. Lee and Lee (84) produced marked improvement in spelling in the third grade by (a) a reduction in the number and difficulty of words taught, (b) emphasis upon words actually used in each grade, (c) a variety of methods for using the words in actual expression of ideas, and (d) engendering a feeling of success in weak pupils.

Millar (90) described a survey of a most profitable exploratory testing and teaching program in spelling in the schools of Madison, Wisconsin. Initial tests included spelling in the pupils' own written work, free association tests, and twenty-five words from the basic spelling list of the previous grade. The broadest vocabularies and the highest percentage of accuracy in spelling occurred in the pupils' own writing. Emphasis in the teaching program was based upon (a) stimulation of the desire and the need to write, and therefore to spell; (b) growth in ability to judge the correctness or incorrectness of the pupils' own spelling; (c) increase in facility and accuracy in finding how to spell words pupils need to use; and (d) improvement in general ability and assurance in habitual correct spelling. Distinctions between rough and final drafts in composition were emphasized in relationship to spelling. A mimeographed basic spelling list, together with brief unit lists, were used in lieu of dictionaries, to place responsibility upon the children for spelling much used words correctly. Phonetic errors proved most common in the diagnosis of difficulty.

Guiler and Lease (65) produced better results among pupils of all levels of ability by use of an individualized program in spelling based upon pretesting and attack upon words missed by each individual. Arnold (6) found study of set words for each grade uneconomical. Comparison of

progress in the spelling of words taught and not taught at each grade level indicated that concerted attack upon a set list of words in each grade merely disturbed temporarily the pattern of the growth curve. Peak, Brooks, and Berkeley (100) proved that practice of the wrong spelling of a word, when the learner was conscious that it was wrong, reinforced correct spelling as much as drill upon the right form.

Robinson (110) deplored current emphasis upon mere rote learning in spelling and reviewed research to reveal elements of reasoning back of the spelling process. Thompson (136) reported increased success in spelling and handwriting when both are integrated with context materials composed from pupil experiences and from other subjects. A saving of time was also effected. Weak pupils profited more than superior ones did from the integrated program.

House (77) found that fourth-grade children who were taught Webster's system of phonetic respelling with diacritics and those taught the international phonetic alphabet made greater progress in both spelling and pronunciation than those taught regular spelling with diacritics. Peake (101) reported a general correlation of .814 between ability in reading and in spelling according to scores on the New Stanford Achievement Test.

In regard to retention of spelling and growth in ability to spell words even in the absence of specific instruction (120), Smith reported a loss in ability to spell after graduation from college, and Prindle (106) noted a greater increase in spelling than in any other aspect of English among 353 college students tested as freshmen and as seniors.

Handwriting

Surveys of Handwriting

Grant and Marble (61) conducted a handwriting survey in sixth-grade classes in Cincinnati to discover whether class instruction in handwriting should be continued into the junior high school. In order to approximate a situation in which writing was a secondary consideration, pupils who had just completed the Otis Test of Mental Ability were told that the last part of the examination was to test their ability to write sentences from memory after hearing them read. Fifty-four percent of the children passed high enough to be excused from further training except that required for maintenance of the skill. Over one-fourth showed defects demanding diagnosis and remedial instruction, and another one-fifth wrote so illegibly as to need continued systematic instruction in writing.

Wixted (146), testing Hunter College seniors graduating to teach in the elementary schools, found them writing with speed well above the eighth-grade level, with form slightly lower than the norm for 8B, with spacing the same as the average for 8B, and with movement below the 8A standard. He also found seniors of 1941 at Indiana University notably superior to seniors of 1919 although the average age at graduation had decreased.

Woody's survey (147) of handwriting instruction in the state of Michigan in 1938 was concerned with the relationship between methods and results. The most common practice he found in the state was to have a definite daily period for systematic instruction in handwriting except in the seventh and eighth grades, where pupils were excused if they maintained a satisfactory level of writing in all written work. Schools which excused pupils in this way produced a better quality of handwriting in the seventh and eighth grades, but not below that level, than did the schools which required practice of everybody. No relationship existed between speed or quality of writing and the amount of time spent on handwriting or the amount of stress placed on muscular rhythmic exercises. Schools which used rating scales stood higher in achievement than those that did not.

In general, as measured by the Ayres scale, children in large cities wrote better but more slowly than those in small and medium-sized towns. There was little evidence that supervision or the use of special teachers improved handwriting above what the regular classroom teachers were able to accomplish.

Contrary to the theory of relating handwriting practice to the child's voluntary efforts at expression, Cole (28) developed a system of drills based upon the formation of individual letters, both separately and combined into words. Detailed counting of letters resulted in a list in order of both frequency and difficulty. These letters were incorporated into words, and systematic and diagnostic drill upon them was instituted. Control groups were set up using conventional methods. Measurement of progress after roughly four months was based upon copying the same short printed list of words—the control group with pen and ink and the experimental group with fountain pen. Both groups made normal progress in rate, but the experimental group made an average improvement in quality of three years during the time when the control group made very little advance.

In order to test the value of perceptual learning in penmanship, Leggitt (86) gave junior high-school pupils drill in matching cards on which was written a single stroke with others on which there were letters containing the same stroke. No writing was done at all. After two sets of ten trials each, the pupils were again tested for writing. Ten out of fifteen increased two or three steps on the Ayres scale and four gained one step. Only one child made no gains. Studying further the penmanship of art students, Leggitt (85) found that pupils electing art improved more in cursive and in manuscript writing than did those not taking art. Members of required courses in art made only normal progress in penmanship.

Evidence of superior attainment in handwriting, especially on the part of weak pupils, when spelling and handwriting are correlated and related to the content subjects, has already been discussed under spelling (136).

Manuscript Writing

Studies by Arrington (7) in Florida and by Cowan (33) in California indicate a preference among primary teachers for teaching of manuscript

rather than cursive writing. Although California supervisors accept the results of research in regard to the values of manuscript writing, administrative difficulties have often stood in the way of inaugurating it or of continuing it, once begun. Teachers in Woody's study (147) held conflicting views on manuscript writing. Forty-one percent of all teachers were for it—more than that in the largest cities. Three-fourths of the teachers in medium-sized towns were against it. Many wished to protect children by teaching both manuscript and cursive writing at the same time, even in the primary grades.

Miscellaneous Studies

A number of brief studies unrelated to the topics already discussed in this review have meaning for teachers of the language arts. Bamberger (11) and Kinhart (83) furnished evidence of the improvement of instruction through the stimulation of supervision. Parks (99) indicated the wide variation in practices of certification in different states and recommended a check upon proficiency in the several aspects of the language arts to exclude majors who have emphasized one area at the expense of well-rounded training. She also urged omitting Freshman English from the English major, and counting toward certification only credits in courses beyond those required of all students in college. Cook (31, 32) has studied problems of articulation and promotion. He found that forcing a pupil to repeat a grade because of failure to meet standards (a) increases the range of ability within a given grade more than promoting him would do; and (b) while depriving him of the spur and interest of a new curriculum and a new teacher, it does not enhance his chances of making progress in English. Stalnaker (130) compared boys and girls for proficiency in English as revealed by results of the College Entrance Board at Princeton. Among 3,000 candidates, girls were superior in scholastic aptitude and in English in general, whether from public or private schools and regardless of the section of the country from which they had come.

Summary and Conclusions

During the last three years the colleges have been twice as active in research bearing upon the problems of teaching English as the high schools have. Barring spelling, handwriting, and word counts, the elementary-school activities are about on a par with those of the high school. Including them, elementary-school research surpasses that of the colleges. There has been tremendous interest in a basic core vocabulary at all levels of instruction. Problems of speech at the college level have been frequently investigated. Fully half of these studies have been concerned with the correlation of success or failure in speech with factors of personality as rated by the Bernreuter or other inventories. Many of the studies have been surveys of the status of speech instruction in college. The survey, as a technique of research, has been more popular than any other method-general surveys in English and special surveys to determine what is being done or what

has been achieved in speech and handwriting. In several instances, it has been possible to correlate results with the type of method or content most used in a given school system, as in the case of Woody's handwriting study in Michigan. Revealing conditions will have value in proportion as it stimulates a direct attack upon the improvement of method and curriculum and additional detailed research into causes and effects.

Especially encouraging is the number of studies attempting to isolate factors influencing growth in language power. Recognition of the complexities of the problem as unsuited to mere study on the basis of objective test results is beginning to appear. Continuation of research in the interrelationships of language growth and child development and environmental factors is imperative if real progress is to be made. *Positive* elements of growth need to be detected. Gunderson's slight classroom investigation of maturing concepts in vocabulary and Humphrey's of the development of initiative and self-evaluation in expression need to be extended and pursued further. Heider's analysis of sentence structure of deaf and hearing children of parallel ages is suggestive of concrete methods of discovering growth year by year. Baker's analysis of changing patterns of interest as they affect expression and of positive evidences of growth in discussion from the third grade through the sixth furnishes leads in the direction which research might well take. Gilbert is the only experimenter who measures progress of the *same* children over a period of three years. The ultimate answer to the problems of developing control over language depends upon substituting for the cross-section study of status a longitudinal study of the progress of the same pupils at various stages of their development and in response to known background and environmental stimuli.

Such investigations as the Eight-Year Study and Glaser's on critical thinking have paved the way for measurement of outcomes long recognized as important but seldom considered in the actual measurement of results by standard tests alone. Segregation of factors for study and careful control of conditions, as Glaser, for example, controlled his, will be necessary before ultimate answers can be given to the major problems raised by these extensive and loosely controlled investigations.

Disagreement on three problems disrupts progress in English at all levels of instruction. One is grade placement of materials so that progress may be gradual and uninterrupted; another is the question of promotion standards and articulation; and a third is the question of what grammar teaching affects usage. The latter has significance chiefly because of the amount of time devoted to linguistic study in the schools. The first can be answered only through detailed study of child development such as has been achieved at the preschool level. The second demands an extension of research in the direction of Cook's investigation of the effects of promotion and non-promotion, with extended measures of effects both in English and in personality traits. The third demands detailed study of specific topics of grammar and the effect of knowledge of them upon use of specifically related items of usage in everyday speech and writing.

The schools at the moment are under terrific bombardment from without. Accusations totally unsubstantiated by evidence are bandied about from editorial writer to editorial writer. Research can and must produce the evidence of the extent of mastery of English skills prevailing in our schools today—in direct comparison with the achievement of pupils of the same level of ability who were in the schools twenty, thirty, and fifty years ago. There is no reason to fear that production of actual evidence of this sort will reflect unfavorably upon the present school population. Regardless of one's opinion concerning the relative importance of skills in the total program in English, concrete evidence of success in them—that is, as great success as in the halcyon days of fifty years ago—is at the moment the passport to realms more significant, perhaps, for child development in the language arts.

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CHAPTER X

Expressive Arts in School Instruction

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DURING the past five to eight years, there has been a tremendous increase in the literature covering arts activities of many kinds which, for purposes of this report, are called the "expressive arts." There seems, however, to be little actual agreement at this time as to the function of the expressive arts in school instruction. There is yet to appear in print a comprehensive, significant statement, other than the report of the Progressive Education Association's Committee on the Function of Art in General Education, as to what experiences and practices in the arts can mean to growing boys and girls. Further, a close study of the writings of several prominent arts publications gives credit to the feeling that there are wide inconsistencies between the written word and the practices in the classrooms of the country. One gains the further feeling that most of the practices in our classrooms are either borrowings from other members in the professional world or unreliable methods accepted as truths during the four years of college life. The statement, "I had my training as an English teacher (or music, or science, and so forth) and then got into teaching the arts," suggests that perhaps what passes for arts experiences in many parts of the country is an intellectualized, highly verbal experience lacking the drive and energized initiative possessed by the expressive arts (54). It seems that the arts teaching in this country has been largely in the hands of others than a competent professional staff.

Points of Emphasis in Recent Literature

There are other indications in recent writings just as important as those mentioned above. The arts in general have for years varied their points of emphasis under one theme or another. From the early attempts to introduce arts into the schools of Boston, we have had periods of rather intense interests and points for justification that included such items as training of the hand, training of the eye, an aid to writing, and the economic flavor—as an aid to industry. Closer to the present day, we find just as vital an interest and allegiance to art for art's sake, arts in life, arts in everyday life, and a wide variety of others (38, 47). Most of these points of emphasis are still being written into courses of study designed to "insure continuity of experiences" blessed with the certainty that through representation or design or some other intellectual logical organization, the result of the adult logic will be a kind of arts experience good for the child (49a, 66). However, through these periods of growth, as indicated in the writing, there have been those individuals (8) and schools (9) who were able to see a glimmer of the significance and importance of the

arts as realistic experiences in the everyday lives of boys and girls (53). The writings of this latter group of people, though small, are beginning to make an impression that promises to point the way to a better, more effective, and creative kind of educational experience for boys and girls.

Influence of Psychology

Increasing use is being made of the studies in child development, especially those concerned with emotions as factors in educating young people (50). There is increasing emphasis that the experiences of children are highly complex things with which to deal (30, 53). Children are individuals and react to experiences (19, 27) and materials in a personal way (12). Such understandings begin to point the way to a more realistic kind of living experience; arts people are beginning to value the unique qualities found in child work (24, 27, 31).

To recognize the worth and values of individuals and their work implies a democratic concept of education which, in turn, is the lifeblood of arts activities. There is increasing evidence that compartmentalized activities are not as effective or as lasting as an education based on experience that is individual in nature, involving ideas, choices, plans, procedures, and expressions related both to goals of the social group and to the aims of the individual (8, 50). Active participation and real experimentation in all kinds of activities and all sorts of materials are appropriate (8, 47, 53). The experiences children have in the arts should be active, energetic ones as well as expressive ones; not externalized or imposed experiences, but those involving the entire organic self (38).

The studies concerned with emotion and human growth and development (67) have caused arts teachers to examine their findings to see what the studies might imply for the arts (4, 13, 14). It is evident that these studies do not imply rote learning or drill (47), or regimentation or compartmentalization of either ideas, experiences, or techniques (30) which might hinder a developing maturity (38). They emphasize experiences that contribute to growth and maturity (50, 53). These studies suggest giving children opportunities for the gradual accumulation of purposive firsthand experiences, which will point out to them things as they are; in fact (59), giving them the opportunity to sense and feel the organic unity and relationships of things as they exist and thereby develop warm feelings toward other and better experiences (53, 59). Such an emphasis means aiding children to see and to organize their experiences into attitudes. It means deriving real values from the attitudes growing out of real experiences (61). It means giving opportunities for action based on children's organic needs, ideas, and value concepts in order that new experiences might be based on the values and attitudes of the previous experiences, and so on (67). These studies indicate the need for more opportunities for increasing self-control, and acceptance of responsibilities for the child's own acts.

Scope of Expressive Arts

The "expressional arts" or the "expressive arts" is taken here to mean those activities in which children engage as part of their living experiences as growing children (8). The concept is not meant to be confined to any one age group or any one class of people since the expressive arts are common to all people at all levels with natural degrees of variation and depth (12). The concept should be further clarified as not being confined to drawing, painting, or sculpturing, but to working in and with a wide variety of tools, materials, and other mediums of expression such as dramatic play, imaginative stories, child play, and other expressive activities that are normal and acceptable to human beings working and living together in this complex world (19). These statements do not imply that a common expressive art is best for all children. As children differ (31), so do their choices as to the expressive mediums in which they feel comfortable.

Difficulties in Arts Teaching

There are definite and distinct barriers to the effective use of the expressional arts as factors in school instruction. There has been a tendency in this country to intellectualize the expressive experience. Further, we have had a system of teaching that looked upon method as an end in itself (49a). In this methodical teaching, we too often defeat the real purpose in that we erect standards and bring children "up to standard" or compare their work with some work of the past or the present. We have a decided tendency to create fears—fears of departing from conventional standards; fears that the work of our students will be out of line with that done in another section of the city or town. Uncreative teachers and teaching will continue to demand obedience, which breeds unimaginative students and barren work. We have generalized in terms of design, line, and isolated aspects so extensively that we have clouded over the organic quality to be found in expressive work. In other words, we have not had the courage or the vision to permit arts activities to become a part of children's living experiences. We seem to be rather set on veneering the experience on the surface rather than making it part of the lives of children—as much a part as playing or telling a story or dramatizing an event in living.

Experimental Program at Ohio State University

There are few experimental programs under way at the present time owing to the displacements caused by the war and other reasons. It seemed worthwhile, however, to report on some of them as representing a practical sort of experimentation which should furnish a broad base for much research on significant aspects of the work. The Related Arts at the University School of Ohio State University is reported rather fully

because the details were available. The program covers the arts experiences from the four-year-olds through the twelfth grade.¹

The fine and industrial arts people are not free from blame for developing strong prejudices which prevent their work from becoming a co-operative undertaking. Possibly the fine arts people have become suspects concerning their emphasis on a program in which all interpretations are made in a language peculiar to that particular field. Possibly the industrial arts people have been more guilty of saying that education for an industrial society is a primary concern of the schools. After doing so they have been too easily satisfied with courses which aim at the mastery of a narrow set of skills and the superficial acquisition of a limited amount of related information.

The arts staff (industrial and fine) at the University School, after ten years of exploring their respective areas and making changes in order better to cooperate with the general education program of the school, have come to the conclusion that there really is little essential difference between what is referred to as fine arts and what is referred to as industrial arts. Both areas deal with materials of various kinds, both are concerned with experiences of children in these materials, both emphasize a creative problem-solving approach. Our proposal as a solution consists of fusing these areas and their philosophies.

Much sustained thought has been given to avoiding the pursuit and mastery of mechanistic processes. Our students have been given a large share in determining their goals and experiences. We have let them face the results of their efforts which are often unequal. In order to direct development of the individual, we have attempted to state controlling principles for young people as they move toward adult life. Some of the aspects covered are obtaining maximum personal development; meeting problems of an immediate personal-social character; understanding the broader social relationships of one's community; adjusting to the economic and industrial life of the adult.

As teachers think about these problems it seems natural to put the student ahead of the subjectmatter. We have learned that contriving to get the student in action is the first step, and that the second is to be certain that some interest other than a casual like or dislike starts him on his avenue of activity. In making the work of the shop and studio interchangeable we discover that the student is greatly stimulated by the wider variety of possible choices. Many of our working spaces are glass partitioned or in other ways may be viewed from several vantage points.

When special interests compete within an arts area student prejudices are often developed which interfere with a broad educational experience. By combining the arts we hope to understand better the generalized needs of our students and thus reduce competing organizations of educational

¹ This report is based on a statement prepared by the arts staff: C. Warren Moore, Louise Asplund, and Kenneth Arisman.

interests, both within the arts area and from without. The following list of art activities is illustrative of the variety to be found in many schools: work in painting (tempera, water color, and oils); designing (commercial, industrial, and architectural); drawing (pencil, ink, charcoal, chalk, and pastel); weaving (raffia, rag, reed, yarn, on table and floor looms); ceramics (hand building, throwing, slip casting, and glazing); metal work (casting of nonferrous alloys, forging, oxyacetylene welding, sheet metal work, and spinning); woodwork (pattern and cabinet work and carving involving the use of hand tools and machines); graphic arts (hand type setting, operating a platen press and a letter press); craftwork (plastics, block printing, leather and textile with appropriate techniques such as carving, etching, engraving, and piercing).

Youth in past years have been furnished with easily worked materials and the simple tools of the artist craftsman. We believe such a limitation does not challenge modern youth. They naturally seek out the stuff of their surroundings to work with. Most parents feel the same way. It seems axiomatic that when the community is rich in materials and equipment the schools should also be rich in resources. Our educational system is such that we strive to have our high-school youth learn to use their heads on the verbal side but we don't know how to help them to feel things. We believe that natural forms of expression must be encouraged.

Appraisal of student progress—At stated times throughout the school year reports are written concerning the work of individual students. The art teachers are concerned in discovering if the student, in respect to his ability and past accomplishment, is growing. Particular attention is given to the following: (a) In the selection of the project and the planning, is he thoughtful concerning the usefulness of the product, appropriateness of the design, relationship of details to the whole, and degree of completeness of planning? (b) In his choice of materials is he concerned with texture combinations, color combinations, and the use of a variety of materials? (c) In his attitudes toward his work does he show an independence in work, helpfulness to others, alertness, promptness, persistence, and concern for the saving of materials? (d) How does the finished product show workmanship with respect to neatness, skill in use of equipment, accuracy of work, and ability to complete work within the estimated time limit? (e) Although much of his work is individual in nature, he is a member of a group of students and we are concerned with his attention to and grasp of ideas underlying group activity such as following preliminary suggestions, carrying his share of unpleasant assignments, and doing more than actually assigned.

Sherman Study in Visual Training

The Sherman experiment is a project in visual training under the auspices of the Bureau of Educational Research in conjunction with the Department of Fine Arts at Ohio State University. This experiment has been

brought about through Hoyt Sherman's interest in the manner in which painters and other creative workers sense and describe the importance of form—the whole thing, rather than isolated elements in a painting or other works of art. He feels that the time allotted to drawing in a fine arts curriculum is important, due to the fact that one of the fundamental needs of an artist is the ability to perceive relationships. Drawing, which is the study of configuration, is not only an end in itself but is the most expedient instrument for training in this ability. With this in view, Sherman set out to develop means and methods by which the concept of configuration can be more effectively presented.

The method consists of using lantern slides the first three weeks in order to develop the ability to see with perceptual unity. While this ability is developing, the student is continually drawing. An interesting element in the experience is the avoidance of intellectualizing the art process. The words "design," "composition," "texture," and so forth, are not employed. It is interesting to note that these things come without conscious effort, through the development of visual awareness. Subject-matter used in the experiment is of the unusual and highly contrary to the natural.

Sherman's findings, other than those qualities evident in the drawings, show a marked increase in perceptual acuity in approximately two months. There is a high degree of correlation between the ability to draw and perceptual acuity. In stereo judgment, or depth discrimination, the gain was small though consistent over the entire class.

Studies at the Cleveland Museum of Art

Between 1935 and 1940, the Cleveland Museum of Art has conducted a rather extensive project under the direction of Thomas Munro, Betty Lark-Horovitz, and Edward N. Barnhart (3a, 44a). This project was made possible with the aid of a grant from the General Education Board of New York in the hope of throwing some light on the whole problem of children's art and art abilities.

The first problem attacked by the investigators was one that had been raised by the museum's attempts to select talented children for its advanced drawing classes. The Seven Drawing Test which it had used was a rough attempt to test the children with the hope of discovering various types of art ability. This formed the basis for many of the investigations and furnished a great mass of material for study. Other tests were designed to measure such characteristics as imagination, decorative sense, visual memory, and art appreciation of specific types of material. The investigators tried to find developmental norms of children's drawings, thus clearing the ground for consideration of the larger esthetic problems involved in the evaluation of children's drawings.

In a series of seven articles (26 through 32) Horovitz covered all phases of the work done under the Board grant. (See also 3a and 44a.)

The studies indicate that it is necessary to consider the subjects which children prefer at different age levels when teaching art in general, history of art, and art appreciation. Picture preferences (27) of boys and girls differ greatly at early age levels but are rather similar at older age levels. In portrait preferences girls select portraits of girls and women while the boys select pictures of boys and men (28). With regard to textile patterns (29), appreciation of color varies with age levels. Here the boys and girls show great preference for only three of the total of thirty-nine patterns through all age levels. Modern patterns were chosen in larger numbers than patterns of the past.

Conclusions

While the amount of research being done in the arts is not comparable with that being done in other areas, it is encouraging to note that some research is being carried on and that research done in former years is being applied to the bettering of teaching practices. The application of research, while small, indicates a growing tendency on the part of arts people to evaluate current practices in the light of the findings of those doing research in this area.

Research in the arts is not well known to arts people and, generally, is not made available to them through the publications upon which they usually rely to keep them informed.

Another element to be considered is the suspicion with which arts people look upon research. This is probably due to a number of factors, one of which has been the unfortunate practice of using methods devised in other areas to attempt to evaluate aspects of the arts. This has been unfortunate, due to the makers of the tests being unfamiliar with the arts process and problems and arts people not being familiar with research techniques. While research as the scientist and mathematician know it is scarce in the arts, it is well to note that more teachers are moving into frankly experimental programs.

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CHAPTER XI

Music in School Instruction

RUSSELL V. MORGAN

THE FIELD OF EXPRESSIVE ARTS (of which music is a part) presents problems in research that have been discouraging to many musicians. Most musical performers have questioned the value of, or at some time bitterly resisted, any scientific approach to problems in the music field. For every topic that can be studied objectively these dissenting individuals will name a number of aspects in which evaluation is necessarily dependent on taste and judgment. In spite of such conditions, however, a considerable amount of research is going on.

The reviewer has not had opportunity to examine the bulk of research that has recently been done. He therefore submits this report as being useful for its bibliographical suggestions, and as giving a certain overview of current thinking among musical people.

Bibliography

The previous review of music and music teaching in this journal was prepared by Wiebe (25) in October 1941. The short but highly selected bibliography in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (13) should also be mentioned. The U. S. Office of Education's annual listing of theses (22) includes a large number of studies devoted to music; these theses were not readily accessible to the present reviewer. Bienstock (3) presented a bibliography of fifty-eight items, appearing between 1934 and 1940, on musical aptitude.

Yearbooks and other reports published by the Music Educators National Conference (15), the Music Teachers National Association (16), the American Musicological Society, and the annual *Bulletin* of the National Association of Schools of Music contain much mature consideration of music education problems.

Extensive references to articles in this field will be found in the *Education Index* under the many topics beginning with "Music" (especially "Music Education"), and under "Musical—Musicians, and Musicology." There is also an extensive current literature on various phases of music in the psychological magazines. The Index Number of *Psychological Abstracts*, published each December as a separate number, will yield reviews of a number of studies made during that year.

The bibliography attached to the present report contains mostly general reports and recent treatises with which all music teachers should be familiar.

The Music Education Research Council has published a number of bulletins dealing with problems of public-school music, and also a series of

more than thirty three- or four-page leaflets on different topics in music education. This material is published by the Music Educators National Conference (15). Radio broadcasts are not included in the present review; they were covered adequately by the recent review of Reid and Day (19), and also by Wiebe (24, 25).

Subjective or Interpretative Aspects of Music

Certain phases of music instruction can be approached in a purely scientific manner and valuable information secured which helps improve instruction. On the other hand, the field of appreciation is extremely difficult to study because it seems impossible to secure any commonly accepted criterion for taste and judgment. With disagreement among the finest of professional musicians as to the quality and value of a given composition, how can an objective test of quality be prepared?

With some ingenuity, however, real progress can be made in areas which at first seem forbidding. Watson (23) investigated the nature of musical meanings and the possibility of measuring them. As an indication of "meaning" he employed the person's classification of a musical selection according to its mood. Considerable preliminary work was done to obtain a satisfactory list of fifteen moods and a set of thirty phonograph records which would exemplify them. Tests were given to pupils in the sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades, to college students, graduate students, and expert musicians. "The relative frequency with which certain meanings are attributed to music is approximately the same for all age levels tested as for the expert musicians" (p. 29). Further, "There is a consistent growth in ability to discriminate between musical meanings from the sixth grade through the college levels" (p. 35). Watson further investigated the objective characteristics of the musical selections, to see whether these were relatively constant and unique for each mood. Such factors as pitch, loudness, speed, sound, dynamics, and rhythm, and dominance in rhythm, melody, or harmony were noted. Both the average and the dispersion of each characteristic were studied for each selection. He concluded that "the meaning of music is not a fortuitous subjective variable—there are constant factors in the music itself which determine the nature of individual interpretation at all levels tested. . . . Abstract meanings have approximately the same musical characteristics for untrained adults and for children as for expert musicians" (p. 29).

Musical Talent and Aptitude

It seems probable that there will continue to be debate for some time with regard to what characteristics essential to music production and enjoyment may be inherited and what ones may be developed. On a purely analytical level it seems possible, however, to say that the following capacities underlie musical accomplishment, and must be present in satisfactory degree, whether inherited or developed, if enjoyment and performance are

not to suffer: (a) sensory acuity, (b) musical coordination, (c) emotional drive, (d) musicality, (e) interest and will-power, (f) general intelligence, and (g) physical energy. To what extent these traits may be elemental and to what extent they may be compounds or groupings of other traits, we cannot at present say.

Bienstock (3) recently reviewed studies in the area of musical aptitude published from 1934 to 1940. Her review and bibliography follow that of P. R. Farnsworth in 1934. She has also contributed to this field through her own studies (2). Bienstock reported on studies of musical ability tests, the effect of training, the influence of intelligence, and the general problem of prediction in music. She concluded: "The status of testing and guidance in music is beginning to emerge as a subject worthy of intensive effort by both psychologists and musicians. The results, however, are far from conclusive at the present time" (p. 440).

A study is under way at the present time in Cleveland in which the Seashore Music Talent Tests are being administered to thousands of pupils through the school radio station.

Musicality is a sort of intuitive sensing of the proper use of musical materials. Little study seems to have been done on this character. It varies widely even among trained musicians. Many graduates of conservatories find it difficult to harmonize a melody in an interesting and effective manner and yet this power is frequently found in an individual who has had little formal study.

Instruction and Administration

A number of general treatises are available for the public-school music instructor or the teacher in a conservatory. Recent treatises include those by Dykema and Gehrken (5), Harlan (7), Haydon (8), Jones (10), Kwalwasser (11), McIntire (12), Mursell (14), Uhl (21), and Wilson (26).

Treatments on the school band and orchestra and their administration were prepared by Hindsley (9), Normann (17), Prescott and Chidester (18), Smith (20), and Wilson (26). Smith's study (20) was a survey of practices in high schools of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, with some emphasis on the financial aspects of bands and orchestras.

The music curriculum has been dealt with by several writers, but particularly by Harlan (7), Jones (10), McIntire (12), and in Bulletin No. 19 of the Music Education Research Council (published in 1936 by the Music Educators National Conference (15)).

Housing, equipment, and supplies were dealt with in Bulletin No. 17 of the Music Education Research Council, published in 1938. This bulletin dealt with design and layout of music rooms, including sound treatment. Other studies are under way. The writer knows of no study connected with quality of musical instruments, but the need for such may cause someone to take up that subject.

In some areas there has been little progress in research. The music education field does not accept this as a final result, but will continue to test new ways of measurement and study with the hope of eventually discovering techniques that will be appropriate to many phases of music instruction, performance, and enjoyment.

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Index to This Issue

Vol. XIII, No. 2, April 1943

References are to the beginning pages of discussion, which may be intermittent.

Activity education, 80, 83
Adolescents, 89; problems, 89
Art, 190; and life, 191; appraisal, 194; curriculum, 193; experimental background, 191; experimentation, 192; measurement, 195; perceptual training, 194; preferences, 196; psychology, 191; sex differences, 196; teaching, 192
Biographies, 91
Causation, 72
Certification, 118
Checklists, 123; for textbooks, 123
Comics, 95
Culture, 120
Democracy, 90; teaching, 90
Drill, in reading, 72
English, 112; as a foreign language, 120; experimental background, 112; *see also* language; literature; reading; semantics; vocabulary
Expressive arts, 190; *see also* art; music
Federal support for education, 70
Foreign languages, 115; bibliography, 115, 155; clubs, 152; college, 144, 145, 148; culture, 117, 120, 148, 151, 152; curriculum, 116, 120, 143, 148; enrolments, 118, 142; grammar, 137, 149; measurement, 122, 153; objectives, 145; offerings, 143; phonetics, 151; radio, 121, 152; reading, 135, 137, 149; recordings, 121, 152; surveys, 135; teacher education, 118, 153, 155; teaching, 116, 147; textbooks, 123; values, 120, 145; visual aids, 121, 152; vocabulary, 121, 122, 150; war and, 117, 142
French (language), 122, 142; enrolments, 142; measurement, 154; prediction, 153; vocabulary, 123, 150
General education, 116
General language, 117, 143, 144, 145, 152
German (language), 135; curriculum, 136; measurement, 138; recordings, 138; teaching, 135; vocabulary, 137; war and, 136
Illiteracy, 72
Individualized instruction, 191
Industrial arts, 193; curriculum, 191, 193; objectives, 193
Integration, 93
Intelligence, 112; thinking and, 112
International relations, 90; education, 90, 145
Italian (language), 142, 151, 152, 154
Language, 102; development of, 102, 103
Latin, 123, 127; college, 132; effect on English, 127; enrolment, 127; measurement, 131; objectives, 127, 132; teaching, 129, 131; values, 128; vocabulary, 123, 127, 130
Latin America, 90; *see also* Spanish; Portuguese
Literature, 88; appreciation, 93; bibliography, 89, 95; classics, 89, 93; college, 90; curriculum, 90, 93; fiction, 89, 95; guides, 95; measurement, 93; objectives, 88; teaching, 91
Meaning, psychology of, 102, 201
Music, 200; aptitude, 201; bibliography, 200; measurement, 201; appreciation, 201; curriculum, 202; psychology, 201; bands and orchestras, 202
National Teacher Examinations, 118, 131
Negroes, 70; literacy, 70
Needed research, 113; thinking, 113
Personal problems, 89
Personal values, 93
Phonograph, 201; *see also* foreign languages—recordings
Play, 191
Poetry, 91, 93
Portuguese (language), 121
Questions (pupils'), 104
Reading, 69; bibliography, 69; clinics, 73; curriculum, 71; developmental, 77; diagnosis, 72; difficulties, 72; difficulty of material, 95; experiential background, 73, 78; high school, 75; interests, 89, 93; machines, 76; measurement, 74; preferences, 93; prevention, 78; readiness, 78; remedial teaching, 75; teaching, 72, 77; war and, 70, 76; *see also* foreign languages; literature; poems; semantics; vocabulary

Romance languages, 142
Russia, 90

Semantics, 105
Social values, 93

Spanish (language), 122, 142; enrolments, 142; measurement, 154; prediction, 153; vocabulary, 123, 151

Stenographic records, 102

Supervision, 93; appraisal, 93

Teacher education, 118; evaluation, 118
Teacher employment, 118, 155; supply and demand, 118

Textbooks, 123; analysis, 123; difficulty, 123; selection, 123

Thinking, 106, 110; measurement, 112; needed research, 113; teaching, 111

Thinking, careful, 110

Vocabulary, 95; burden, 95, 123, 151; development, 103, 127; frequency studies, 122, 127, 150; meaning, 105; measurement, 105

Word lists, 122, 127

World War II, 69; education and, 69; reading and, 70, 76; *see also* foreign languages